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THE RETIREMENT OF PRESIDENT JUDSON

On February 20, 1923, the sixteenth anniversary of his assumption of the presidency of the University of Chicago, Harry Pratt Judson retired from the active duties of his administrative office and from the professorship of political science and became president emeritus.

President Judson has had a long career in the educational field. He began as teacher and principal of the high school in Troy, New York, where he served from 1870 to 1885. During this early experience he acquired an interest in the problems of secondary education which has been manifested in many ways throughout the years subsequent to 1885 when he occupied successively the offices of college professor, dean, and president.

One of the policies which he has persistently and vigorously advocated is that of the reorganization of the units of the American school system. It was due directly to his stimulating interest in the better organization of the relations between elementary schools and high schools that the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago first dropped the eighth grade and later reduced the University Elementary School to six years. He has frequently

pointed out with emphasis the fact that the junior college is essentially secondary in its methods and in the content of its courses. In recent years he has contributed directly and in many ways to the experiment of the fusion of the University High School and the Junior College of the University of Chicago.

This is not the time or the place to comment on the achievements of President Judson's university administration. It is entirely fitting, however, that the *School Review* should express appreciation of the contributions of this leader in American education in its own field. In the early days of its publication the *School Review* frequently had the opportunity of carrying to its readers Dr. Judson's contributions. The last articles which he published in the *School Review* were his presidential address delivered before the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1912, entitled "Waste in Educational Curricula," and an address delivered before the secondary-school conference of the University of Chicago in 1913, entitled "Economy in Education." Throughout all of these contributions one finds vigorous administrative thinking, always in the direction of progressive, constructive readjustment. One finds advocacy of economy, persistent attack on formalism, and an insistence on real rather than artificial standards.

It is appropriate that the *School Review* add one more to the many testimonials which have of late come to Dr. Judson of appreciation for services rendered. The editors wish to the President Emeritus a long opportunity to do the writing which his administrative duties have up to this time made difficult. If there is in the future any discussion on secondary education which he wishes to communicate to the high-school or college people of the country, the *School Review* will always be glad of the opportunity to be the medium for the publication of that message.

BROADER PRIVILEGES TO HIGH-GRADE STUDENTS

Smith College has taken a step which is of interest to all who are concerned with the more adequate administrative handling of bright students. It has substituted for the rigid routine which is assumed to be necessary for the mediocre student a freer program of independent activity. It allows the highly competent student

an opportunity to specialize along the lines of her choice and ability. These changes have been made in such a way as to offer the maximum incentive to the student to utilize the liberty which she has acquired in the most energetic type of intellectual effort.

A lengthy quotation from the announcement of the new plan follows:

By the provision of special honors, Smith College is giving to students of outstanding ability opportunities which cannot be realized in the ordinary work of the classroom. The rate of progress aimed at in college courses is determined by a rough averaging of the capacity of all the students in them, with the result that, while this rate is barely maintained by the weakest students, it is very far from keeping the ablest employed. These latter, who should contribute most to the intellectual life of the college, are liable, on the contrary, either to fall into habits of intellectual loafing, or to occupy their too-abundant leisure by a disproportionate amount of non-academic activities. The objection to a uniform pace for all abilities applies also to a uniform method of instruction. Frequent recitations and lectures may be the best means of keeping some students intellectually awake; for others, they are unnecessary and wasteful. After a good student has acquired habits of study and keen intellectual interests, she needs leisure for thinking and large quantities of solid reading rather than hours a day of classroom work. Furthermore, after the large range of subjects required by our curriculum in the first two years, she is ready for a more intensive application to some chosen field, so that at the end of her college course she may carry away not merely a great variety of scraps of knowledge, but power and method for the mastery of one field and its correlated parts. Too often college students regard the subjects covered in "courses" as things apart; they neatly pigeon-hole the information so derived, and, after the examinations are over, they tie up each bundle of facts and put it away, seldom realizing the relation such facts may have to others acquired subsequently. In the work for special honors each candidate, excused from "courses" and from the examinations which terminate them, is given every opportunity to view the various subdivisions of her work as one connected whole. Her study should therefore lead both to a deeper and to a more comprehensive understanding of her subject than is normally gained by the student who follows the usual curriculum.

It is not the aim of the Faculty to turn the system of special honors into a school for training in research. The candidate for these honors is rather given as deep an insight as is possible into the knowledge already existing in her chosen field; on graduation she will then be thoroughly familiar with its problems, and ready, if she so desires, to begin research on her own account. The advantage of this deeper knowledge is clear, not only for the future investigator and writer, but also for those who expect to teach.

Recognizing these principles, the Faculty approved in 1921 a scheme by which at the end of the Sophomore year, students having a general average of at least B, or, in exceptional cases, students whose work in the department of their choice is highly recommended as showing unusual ability, though their general average may not be so good, are permitted to apply for candidacy for honors in a special field. By "field" is not necessarily meant one subject as subjects are usually understood in college; for instance, honors are obtainable in Classics, not in Latin or Greek alone; or a combination may be made of modern languages; or of History as major subject with Government, or vice versa; and in other ways studies intimately allied may be connected. Application should be made through the office of the Registrar before April 15 of the Sophomore year by the students who, having obtained the necessary average in their first three semesters, desire to become candidates for special honors; but students whose average reaches B only at the end of their Sophomore year will still be eligible, and may, with the approval of the department concerned, apply before the beginning of their Junior year.

Those students whose application has been approved by the committee in charge of special honors and by the department in which their chief study is to be followed, are relieved during the last two years of the routine of class attendance and course examinations. Each student comes under the guidance of a "general director" of her work, who plans with her a series of eight units of study in her chosen field, two units being equivalent to the full work of one semester. Six of these units, the work of the Junior year and the first semester of the Senior year, are distributed among the subdivisions of her chosen study; two subdivisions are usually followed simultaneously. These subdivisions may coincide with single units of study and change each semester, or two units may be devoted to one subdivision. The work is carried on in the various subdivisions under guidance of "special instructors," by means of suggested readings, written reports, and by conferences, weekly or fortnightly, in which these reports are criticized and instruction given for the preparation of others. The instruction is therefore planned for each individual student; but, should several candidates elect to follow the same work with the same instructor, a small group may be combined in a little seminar or class for report and discussion. Each candidate will be allowed, as far as is practicable, to choose her "special instructors." Honor students may in any semester be advised or required to attend such courses or parts of courses as seem advantageous for the pursuit of the selected studies; but these students are not thereby obliged to fulfil the class requirements or to take the final examination in such courses. Candidates for special honors are exempted from all requirements exacted in the case of other students during the Junior and Senior years, with the exception of the requirement in Group VIII (Philosophy and Biblical Literature). Students, therefore, who expect to be candidates for special honors should, if possible, complete the requirement in Group VIII in the Sophomore year.

The two units of the last semester of the Senior year are to be devoted to the writing of a long paper on some subject chosen within the student's field,

and to a general review preparatory to an extensive examination covering the whole range of study of the last two years. The paper, in typewritten form, will be placed in the Library after acceptance.

Honors are awarded in two grades: honors and highest honors, according to the quality of the work done. In the event of a student's failing to be awarded either grade at the end of her Senior year, she may yet be granted a pass degree if her work is of sufficient merit. A student who on grounds of health or other serious cause finds it impossible to continue her honors work may petition to withdraw, resuming her position as a candidate for the degree without honors, or with such departmental honors as may be open to her. Her petition will be granted if approved by the department in charge of her work, and by the Committee on Special Honors.

The scheme of special honors does not supersede the different methods of obtaining honors at present in force in college; and any student who wishes to follow the present course of study is eligible for departmental or general honors as heretofore.

It may be noted that, in its restriction of the system of individual guidance to a small picked group, the scheme of special honors differs from the tutorial system adopted in recent years by some American universities. On the other hand, while it resembles the honor schools of the English universities by giving the student a comprehensive view of her field in uninterrupted and intensive study of its various parts, it yet differs materially from these schools in requirements and in organization, for it demands that the first two years of a student's work be devoted to a wide range of prescribed subjects, and it is organized to meet the needs of each individual candidate for honors. The same curriculum of study is not necessarily devised for all students in one department, and the same examinations are not necessarily set for all; both study and final examinations are based on the program drawn up separately with each student by the general director of her course.

THE ANTIOCH PLAN

Part-time work while attending college is being tried out in Yellow Springs, Ohio, and has attracted the interest of the Industrial Conference Board sufficiently to lead to the issuance of the following statement:

One of the most important recent industrial developments is the increasing co-operation between industry and higher educational institutions, says a statement issued yesterday by the National Industrial Conference Board, 10 East Thirty-ninth Street. The most prominent of them, the so-called Antioch plan of education, is simply an extension by Antioch College into the field of industry of the co-operative plan of education that has been successfully used for some years in engineering and technical schools, notably the University of Cincinnati.

At Antioch College, at Yellow Springs, Ohio, the same plan has been applied to the field of proprietorship or management, giving instruction in the

fundamentals of such callings as engineering, contracting, printing and publishing, manufacturing, machine-shop operation, farming, merchandising, house design and furnishing, accounting and institutional management.

"Under the Antioch plan," the statement says, "the larger part of the students divide their time between school and practical work, the student body being divided into two groups, alternating in five-week periods between college and industry. Last year, which was the first under the new plan, they were placed in more than fifty different institutions, including factories, laboratories, banks, stores, and schools, in Dayton, Columbus, Middletown, Springfield, and other Ohio cities and towns.

"As finances permit, it is planned to assist students in the establishment of small industries, where they can exercise increasing responsibility. It is also planned to erect an industrial building on the campus, where a number of privately owned small industries will be invited to locate. Such industries will be offered floor space, electric power, an intelligent, serious-purposed working force supplied from the student body, and the advisory service of the faculty in accounting, industrial research, traffic, advertising, cost analysis, and other departments in administration.

"Last year more than a thousand young persons applied at Antioch and two hundred were admitted; this year there were more than two thousand applicants, and more than four hundred enrolled. During the first half-year only 10 per cent of the student workers failed to make good in the double test of work and study, and employers report that the keen interest and high morale of the students more than offset their lack of experience and maturity. In the first month, even, the Freshman students at times were reported to have exceeded experienced workers, both in quantity and in quality of production.

"Under the co-operative plan the regular four-year course is extended to six years of forty weeks each, being arranged for technical or professional students to give 50 per cent of the time to economic work, 25 per cent to technical or professional training, and 25 per cent to the cultural work which is required of all students. The opportunity for part-time work not only gives the student the benefit of actual contact with the practical problems of his subject of study, but makes it possible for a student having only a few hundred dollars to complete his college course without financial difficulty.

"Students are seldom placed in positions paying less than \$15 a week, and the 1922-23 announcement of the college gives the following as the average student earnings during the past year. The total yearly income given includes work for the full summer vacation. The figures: Freshman, \$350; Sophomore, \$500; sub-Junior, \$600; Junior, \$700; sub-Senior, \$750; Senior, \$800."

BAD ADVICE ON READING

A recent bulletin issued by Meredith College is devoted to giving advice to college students, especially engineers, about their

reading. Some extracts from this bulletin are so clearly in opposition to what we know about good methods of reading that they furnish an opportunity to draw a contrast which it is hoped may be helpful.

The extracts are as follows:

Now then, *how* shall we read? First of all, read aloud. Every bit of literature properly so called that history has to show is intended, not for the eye primarily, but for the ear. Every line of Shakespeare, every line of Milton, is meant to be pronounced, cannot be duly appreciated until it is pronounced. Often an entire masterpiece remains dark and forbidding, merely because the reader has sought to interpret it with the eye alone. . . .

The process of making monotonous black characters on the page vividly stir the latent sense-perceptions is, however, relatively slow and irksome. Few people have ever learned to do it consistently; and hence, it is fair to say, few have ever truly learned to read. The moral is, read slowly. Take ample time. Pause where the punctuation bids one pause; note each and every comma; wait a moment between a period and the next capital letter. And pause when common sense bids you pause, that is, when you have not understood. As the line of sentences comes filing before the window of your soul, examine each individual expression with the *animus*, and more than the *animus*, you would maintain were you paying teller in a bank; saying to yourself continually, "Do I know this word?" and, "What is this phrase worth?" Toward what they see in print many people, otherwise shrewd and sensible, are strangely credulous; what they find in a book they instinctively think must be true. Yet books are not more trustworthy than the men who write them; the number of misguided and misleading books is infinite. Good books are rare.

Read aloud; read slowly; read suspiciously. Reread. What a busy man has time to read at all, he has time to read more than once.

This advice is of the sort that might have been expected in 1870 when methods of teaching reading were very little developed and when there was no scientific knowledge about the nature of the psychological processes involved in fluent reading. It is almost incomprehensible that such advice should be given in 1922 and still more incomprehensible that it should issue from a teacher of English language and literature. It shows the analytical bias which so often ruins teaching in the high school and elementary school. Think of concentrating attention on commas and capitals! Think of perpetuating oral reading when fluent silent reading is known to be the superior achievement!

Some day it will be as much of an offense in the eyes of society to issue such advice as it is today to give unscientific advice on the care of the body. If doctors can be checked in malpractice, it ought to be possible to save young people from being told to "note each and every comma" and that "every bit of literature properly so called is intended, not for the eye primarily, but for the ear."

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH DEPARTMENT AT VIRGINIA,
MINNESOTA

The Research Department of the public school system of Virginia, Minnesota, has prepared a mimeographed statement of its activities during the past year. Two items of special interest appear as indications that progressive school systems are coming to recognize the fact that education is not a matter of formal teaching and the still more formal recording of marks. Education requires a careful study of the individual if it is to be successful.

The items are as follows:

Non-promotion and retardation.—An attempt was made to get at the causes of retardation in Grades I to VIII inclusive. The causes of non-promotion, for the first semester as assigned by the teachers, were classified under five headings.

Causes of Non-Promotion	Kindergarten to Sixth Grade	High School
Physical	84	21
Temperamental	119	264
Mental	155	197
Academic	91	93
Social	65	114
Total	514	689
Number of individual failures	340	462

Individual pupil folder file.—This system of filing the pupil records was started in the early part of the year. Between seven and eight thousand pupils are represented in this folder system. Each folder contains all available past and present records of an individual pupil. The folder may give a complete record of the child; academic, medical, social, etc. cards from many drawers, cupboards, files, vaults, etc. have been assembled into this one centralized record. If this system of records is kept up to date, it may become the most valuable aid in the vocational and educational guidance of the pupils.

AS OTHERS SEE US

The following item is taken from a recent issue of the Educational Supplement of the *London Times*:

At a meeting of the Guild of Workers for Children under School Age held last week at the Manchester College of Technology an address on "American Education," based upon a recent visit to the United States, was given by Mr. J. H. Hallam, head of the Secondary Education Department of the West Riding County Council.

The lecturer described the liberal provision of higher education in the United States, where there is free secondary education for all who successfully pass through the elementary school. In one small town in the Middle West with a population of twenty thousand, chiefly Polish and Italian immigrants, a school providing free education up to the age of twenty was being built for three thousand pupils at a cost of three million dollars. Americans were convinced of the value of higher education, not only because it was a sound business proposition, but because they realized that no democratically-governed country could be safe without it.

The scheme of higher education which was likely to become general throughout the United States provided for the termination of the elementary-school course at twelve, when the children who have successfully completed it pass forward to a junior high school. Here, during a three years' course the pupil's aptitude was discovered by trial of a variety of subjects, and the boy or girl proceeds to a senior high school course in academic subjects, commercial subjects, mechanical arts, or home economics according to his or her bent. From all of these courses entrance to a university was possible. The practice in America was to continue these courses in a single school, rather than to establish separate types of school, since the latter arrangement tended to stratify the educational system according to class divisions.

Part-time day continuation schools in America gave the impression that such a system was not likely to be permanent but would rapidly be replaced by compulsory full-time attendance to fifteen or sixteen, a point already reached in several states. American education owed much of the hold it possessed upon the interest and support of the people to a skilfully organized publicity system and to such bodies as parent-teacher associations. Its chief defects were those arising from large numbers, producing an over-mechanized organization, with consequent sacrifice of the unusually brilliant to the average pupil.

EXAMINATIONS

The widespread discussion of intelligence tests has stimulated a renewed interest in the conventional type of written examination long familiar in high schools and colleges. President Lowell devotes a portion of his annual report to a classification of examinations and

an explanation of what he regards as the unique value of the general examination required by Harvard at the close of the Senior year. His discussion follows:

First, there is the disciplinary examination whose object is mainly to ascertain whether the work required of pupils has been faithfully done. Since in our common schools oral teaching has to a great extent replaced individual study by the pupil of prescribed lessons in a textbook, the need of constant examinations of this type has been felt less than formerly. It would seem to be against examinations of this kind, the most common and best understood type, that the repugnance of the teachers is mainly directed.

A second kind of examination may be termed informational, its object being to discover the extent and accuracy of knowledge possessed by the person examined. Of this nature are the examinations for admission to college by those institutions that still employ them—now almost entirely conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board. Into the same class fall also, for the most part, although by no means wholly, the examinations held at the end of college courses. Such examinations are valuable only in measuring knowledge which the person who takes them ought to possess. In a college course where the same ground has been covered by all the members of the class the questions can easily be made both fair and searching. But where precisely the same ground has not been covered, or has not been covered with equal thoroughness in all parts, such examinations lose much of their value and precision; and school teachers sometimes complain that even in an elementary subject the varying stress laid on its different parts makes the questions prepared by a stranger in some degree an unfair test of the proficiency of the pupil.

The third kind of examination may, for want of a better word, be called potential, its aim being to measure the power or capacity to use and correlate knowledge. The object is not so much to find out what facts the student knows, but how far he has grasped their meaning, how fully he can apply them, how far his studies have formed a part of his being and developed the texture of his mind; in short, not whether he has been duly subjected to a process, but what as a result of it he has become. This type of examination, while employed regularly for the doctorate of philosophy in universities, has not hitherto been used systematically in our colleges. Oral examinations, from their greater flexibility, have certain distinct advantages for this purpose, but they are by no means necessary. The psychological tests that have recently come into vogue are attempts to measure intelligence, that is, to disclose the capacity of the persons to whom they are applied; and useful as they are so far as they go, they deal only with very elementary information. We are seeking for examinations that will measure the acquired ability to use specialized knowledge on a far higher plane. This the general examination undertakes to do, and in doing so it must strive to measure, not merely what has been included in formal courses, but the subject as a whole, because the object to be attained

is fixing the student's attention on the subject, not on those portions of it that happened to be included in any course or series of courses.

The reasons for the general examination have been stated more than once in these reports, but experience in its use has now continued long enough to say something about its results. Counting more than once those who failed and tried again, we have now examined 1,009 students in this way. Certainly a number sufficiently large to justify drawing some reliable conclusions; and in fact during the single year covered by this report, the first in which the general examinations were in use for subjects other than history, government, and economics, 424 students were so examined, a number that will not be less in the years to come.

The examination is a real additional requirement for graduation, because the students who fail to pass it lose their degrees although they have passed all the seventeen courses which are still required and which until the general examination was established were alone required. It is interesting, therefore, to note the number of failures. In the division of history, government, and economics, during the seven years it has been in use, there have been 773 men examined, of whom fifty-nine or 7.6 per cent have failed. A man who fails is allowed two more attempts at subsequent examinations if he so desires, without being obliged to reside in Cambridge; and, in fact, of the fifty-nine who failed, nineteen have tried again, fifteen of them with success. Of the sixteen who failed for the first time in 1922 it is probable that some will present themselves another time. In other subjects, to which the general examination was applied for the first time in 1922, there were 236 candidates of whom sixteen or 6.8 per cent failed. Naturally the proportion of failures varied considerably in the different subjects. In English, which is not deemed by the students very difficult, and where the number of candidates was much the largest, being 125, the failures were thirteen, or more than one in ten. These figures show that the requirement of a command of the subject as a whole, beyond what is obtained from taking courses of instruction, is effective.

A second exhaustive discussion of examinations is presented in a bulletin published by the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois under the title *Written Examinations and Their Improvement*. Some of the conclusions reached in this bulletin may be quoted as illustrating the spirit of its findings. The quotations are only partial; especially are they incomplete in that they omit concrete factual and illustrative material of which a considerable body is included in the publication.

Probably the most prominent function of the written examination is that it provides an opportunity for learning, both in the preparation for the examination and in the actual writing of it. The pupil who is not required to take

examinations is missing an important part of his educational opportunities. The importance of this function, however, varies with the type of examination. Examinations which call merely for facts or in which the pupil is not required to formulate an answer consisting of several sentences offer only a limited educational opportunity. Incidentally it may be noted that this is one weakness of the "new examination."

A second function of written examinations is the measurement of the achievements of pupils. As we have pointed out, measurements are essential to the organization and administration of schools as well as to classroom instruction, and examinations do secure a type of information relative to the achievements of pupils which can be secured in no other way. Although written examinations possess these functions it should be remembered that it is only when examinations are properly used and not abused that the fulfillment of these functions may be expected.

The written examination furnishes an effective motive. It is true that some criticisms may be offered against the use of the examination to motivate the work of the school, but this use, unless carried to an extreme, is probably not harmful. . . .

Teachers should give more attention to the formulation of examination questions. Relatively unimportant topics or those which have not received emphasis during the term should be omitted. Ambiguous statements should be avoided. The questions also should be varied so that they demand different types of mental ability, memory, reasoning, organization, etc. Pupils should be given directions concerning methods of work. . . .

A systematic procedure should be followed in marking the examination papers. Explicit rules should be formulated relative to the effect of misspelling, poor English, poor handwriting, and so forth, upon the "grade" assigned to a paper. The rule should cover also credit for correct principle and partial credit for answers partially right. The "sorting method" of marking is recommended. . . .

The "new examination" has many advantages, among which are its increased objectivity of marking and the economy of time for both pupils and teachers. The "new examination" will undoubtedly prove useful, but its limitations must not be overlooked.

Traditional examinations call for the functioning of distinct types of mental ability not demanded to so great a degree in any other kind of school work, and should not, especially in the case of final examinations, be abolished, nor replaced entirely by any other form of school exercise. Teachers and pupils, more and more, should be impressed with their unique educational value.

EDUCATION AND THE MOVIES

CHARLES H. JUDD
University of Chicago

At the Boston meeting of the National Education Association Mr. Will Hays asked the educators of the United States to co-operate with him and the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, whom he represents, in improving the movies.

The production and the exhibition of moving pictures have gone through a feverish stage of the most extravagant expansion. In a little less than twenty years the industry of entertaining the American public with picture shows has become one of the most lucrative and extensive businesses of the country. Immense fortunes have been made by producers and by individual actors, and every day throngs frequent the theaters that have sprung up in every town and on almost every city street in the land.

This rapid expansion has given little occasion for deliberate study of the problems involved in making moving pictures. The technique of producing and the acting have improved, to be sure, but chiefly because of the stress of competition. Competition does not in general push in the direction of refinement. So it began to appear about two years ago that competition was becoming too intense even for those who had profited by the earlier enormous developments of the movies.

Furthermore, the American people began at about the same time to withdraw their support. There are various speculations as to the reason. Some attribute to hard times the falling off in attendance, which has been estimated at 30 per cent. Others believe that satiety has set in and that the people have been surfeited with the cheap and repetitious and not infrequently lewd pictures with which the producers sought to stimulate the jaded appetite of a much entertained nation.

Whatever the cause, the fact is that the producers began to feel the disastrous effects of unbridled competition and reduced box-

office receipts. So they began to study the book of moral and artistic improvement. They employed Mr. Hays, declared themselves ready to consider any formula of improvement that was offered, and united in an association which had among other purposes the checking of disastrous competition.

It was at this stage that the educators were called in. Every moral cause appeals to educators, and here was a move in the direction of genuine public reform.

The call to the educators was a little vague. President Owen of the National Education Association tried to find out just what the educators can contribute. Finally, after a great deal of discussion of possibilities, he appointed a committee. This paper is prepared with a view to stimulating discussions which, it is hoped, will help this committee in formulating a policy for the association.

It is interesting and impressive to learn what the producers really think of a committee of educators. As soon as the committee took up the work of discovering its province, the emphatic suggestion came from the producers that the educators had better confine their activities at the outset to pedagogical films. A pedagogical film is one which is useful in a classroom and not likely to compete with the entertainment film commonly exhibited in theaters.

The committee is gathering material for some reports on pedagogical films, and these reports, it is hoped, will in due time throw light on the difficult problem of using moving pictures for purposes of school instruction. In the meantime, this invitation for discussion is sent out in the hope of opening up a line of inquiry which unfortunately, as it seems to the present writer, the producers prefer not to have the educators follow, at least at present. It is a deliberate effort to call the attention of educators and producers to an important fact, namely, the fact that the entertainment which is being offered to the young people of this country today as their chief amusement is essentially unsound in character and certain to produce all of the unfavorable results of intellectual dissipation if it is not radically reformed.

The teacher who thinks that the effects of the movies do not reach into her classroom unless she uses a lantern and brings in films is very shortsighted. The fact is that young people and old are

getting a type of mental training at the moving-picture theater which is fixing mental habits to a degree which we have not been recognizing as we should.

Let us put as pointedly as we can the antithesis between the ordinary moving picture and those forms of thinking which the school tries to cultivate. The school teaches the child that he must control his imagination so that the things which he builds up in his mind conform to reality. In school two and two always make four. In school the law of gravity always operates. In school one learns that a garden must always be planted before it can grow. In school one learns that skill is acquired by application. In school one learns that health depends on sound habits of life. In short, one learns in school that reality is rigid and regular. What does one learn at the ordinary movie? One becomes accustomed to the most extravagant modes of life, to the most improbable happenings, to unearned success, and to every possible escape from natural law.

Let it be noted that we are not discussing at all what is ordinarily spoken of as the moral aspect of the movie. The prodigality and the disregard for custom and social law are not at the moment in our minds. We are discussing the ordinary happenings.

The matter can be put in psychological terms. The human mind has the greatest freedom and flexibility in the management of its ideas. One may think of one's self as floating through the air, or as immensely rich or powerful, although one knows that all of these things are only in one's mind. The technical psychologist calls this freedom and flexibility of ideas imagination. One can imagine anything one likes. Not only so, but there is a kind of relaxation in letting one's mind go and letting ideas fit together in kaleidoscopic variety.

Untrammeled imagination as recreation may be legitimate, but the process of education is devoted to the task of developing self-possession of one's ideas. One may fit ideas together as one will, but in the long run one's imagination will be constructive and useful only when one's imaginations issue in effects on reality. One may, if one will, imagine a utopia, but the constructive erection of a new plan of housing the people of a city requires a higher type of trained imagination.

The school takes the advantage of the flexibility of ideas. In the biology class the mind follows the migration of the birds and builds up a life cycle that no eye has seen in its entirety. In chemistry the school carries the imagination into the play of atoms. In history the imagination sweeps over vast periods of time. In every one of these cases, however, the combinations of ideas must fit into the facts. The train of ideas is not a succession of extravagant happenings; it is a train of steady, coherent occurrences.

With this kind of goal before classroom teaching, is it not strange that teachers have not seen their perfectly obvious relation to the movies? The fact is that while the school is trying to train pupils to be critical and exacting in their own minds, the movie is pulling in the other direction in 80 per cent of the cases. The movie has almost all of the freedom and flexibility of the human imagination. The hero can climb up the side of a building. He can ride the wildest horse without any preliminary training. He drives at speeds that would be ruinous to any ordinary automobile. He goes through buildings. This we could all imagine, too, but we do not do so ordinarily. Yet every night a very large percentage of the American people go to a wonderland where the constructive imagination is switched off. There is there no law of probability, no danger of unfavorable mishap.

This is legitimate recreation, rest for the mind, someone will say. Certainly, it will have to be admitted that there is pleasure not to be denied to human kind in the utter abandon of an untrammeled imagination. How often can one go on this kind of an intellectual spree and come back to truly constructive imagining? This is the question which one is forced ultimately to ask. If one has to do business in a world full of keen competition where success depends on foresight, which is a form of imagination, does one get the best training for constructive business thinking in the midst of daily extravaganza?

The question may arise in the mind of some reader, Is the gist of this article a plea for less frequent attendance on the movies? Not at all. This article is intended to suggest a program through which the educators may help the producers.

The reason why the American people have so long put up with weak and often utterly stupid movies is that they have no training in the intelligent appreciation of movies. This new form of art with its infinite possibilities has come upon us with a rush, and we are ignorant and unappreciative of its possibilities.

Let us think of some of the advantages of this new form of art. The scenery in an ordinary theater is meager and flat and rigid. The moving picture has all outdoors and indoors for its background and for its scenes of action. It can shift scenes in an instant. It is responsible for the achievement of some of the highest effects of art because of this advantage. Special attention is called to the word "responsible."

The ordinary theater cannot emphasize a single point. It cannot throw in a close-up and for the moment concentrate the attention of the whole audience on a single minute point in the world of happenings.

The ordinary theater cannot command many actors for a single play. The new silent drama can introduce as many players as there are in the visible world.

An instructive contrast can be drawn between the moving picture and the story that one reads from the printed page. There is a richness of detail and a subtlety of expression in the picture which pass in concreteness anything that language can convey.

What has the school done to make young people intelligent about this new form of art? What, indeed, is there anywhere in our literature that discusses soberly even for adults the possibilities of artistic use of this new instrument of entertainment? Do our people know that a close-up which is intended to show some overwhelming emotion is in reality very often screamingly funny as it slowly exhibits a distorted face wholly unlike the natural exhibition of an emotion? Do our people ever stop to think that lack of fidelity to nature is an artistic offense here as it would be in any other form of art?

What educators ought to begin to do is to help the next generation acquire what we do not now have, taste in this new form of art. Do not let anyone make the mistake of thinking that the only salutary reform to be advocated lies in the direction of abstinence.

People are going to go to moving-picture shows. Making pictures moral means making them more worth going to. This means raising the level of their correspondence to the highest types of imagination. Do not let the producers get the impression that the educators are not going to have a hand in training taste. Let us overcome the shortcomings of the past by developing a vigorous interest in the artistic side of moving pictures and by training young people to demand truly artistic effects.

The method of doing this is not far to seek. Provide a time in the school for the discussion of movies. Ask the pupils to analyze the plot with a view to discovering its probabilities. How likely is that to happen which is portrayed? Then ask how well the pantomime expressed the idea, and what artificial pantomime had to be introduced in order to shorten the story. Ask how far the dress of the actors was appropriate. Ask how far the facial expressions were appropriate.

In the high school there could be developed a group of art critics who would do more to elevate community taste than any board of censors that could be set up. There is material here for composition, for science, and for training in straight thinking which will be helpful to the general school program.

The committee of the National Education Association which has been instructed to report on moving pictures will be very much aided in the preparation of its report if teachers will study the problem suggested in this paper and contribute discussions. It is planned to print several other papers on the general problem which is here introduced. Will some teachers begin constructive experimentation and help the committee? The full list of members of the committee is as follows: Leonard P. Ayres, Cleveland Trust Company, Cleveland, Ohio; Elizabeth Breckinridge, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky; Ernest L. Crandall, 157 East 67th Street, New York City; Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California; Elizabeth Hall, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Payson Smith, State Commissioner of Education, Boston, Massachusetts; Charles H. Judd (chairman), University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

EVOLUTION OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

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Our high school is one of the distinctly American contributions to educational organization. To be sure, it is intimately connected with the schools for the education of adolescent youth in other lands; yet it is far from being a mere adaptation of old-world machinery to new-world conditions. No other country has attempted such an ambitious program of education, which is nothing less than high-school training for every youth. Whether or not we shall be able to carry forward to its logical conclusion that to which we have so fully committed ourselves is for future years to reveal. But at present the high school is dearer to the heart of the average community than any other element in its social organization.

It is difficult for us to realize that an institution which was fighting for its very life less than fifty years ago has become such an important factor in the development of democratic ideals. Between fifteen and twenty thousand high schools are receiving yearly the choicest youth of our land. Few weaklings are found here, but rather those who have been selected by fairly rigorous tests of physical and mental capacity and those moral factors which make for leadership. Guiding this great army of chosen youth are the best trained, the happiest, the most dynamic of our American teachers; college trained, most of them; experienced beyond the average; young and energetic as a rule; optimistic. True it is that a large proportion of them are young women who will be married tomorrow; those who are men will become superintendents or lawyers or business men, but daily, during the few years we have them, they are training these selected young people in this distinctly American institution, this molder of democratic ideals, of which our people have some right to be proud.

And who is furnishing the leadership? Who guides and directs the teachers who in their turn are in intimate daily contact with

these, our citizens, our governors of tomorrow? The high-school principal holds here a strategic place. On his shoulders rests the responsibility of shaping this wonderful, incomplete, promising bit of educational machinery which we call the high school. He is better trained, as a rule, than the members of his teaching corps. He is a little older, has had wider experience, has developed certain qualities of leadership which have selected him, most likely, from a teaching corps somewhere, placed him at the head of a school, and named him principal.

The high-school principalship in its present broad functions is an institution of today. It has no history. It has not yet even established itself so that there is a standardization of its duties and responsibilities. Yet, in origin, it is the oldest of our educational administrative offices. It is worth while, in this period of reconstruction in secondary education and of recognition of its new responsibilities and its new opportunities, to consider the evolution of this office which we are so rapidly investing with new meanings. Very naturally one who would trace the historic foundation of the modern secondary-school principalship thinks of Plato, who so long ago walked with his youth under the trees in that stately grove just on the edge of ancient Athens. Or one turns to the great Quintilian who lived and did his work in the same century that gave the world the greatest of its teachers. Quintilian was an organizer, a teacher of boys without a peer in his time, a man of vision, one who gave his best energies to youth of adolescent age, a man who, had he lived and taught today, would have towered among his fellows as he doubtless did in those days of Roman splendor. But we find no evidence to show that he represented a class of professional masters or principals of schools. He was an exception in his age, and the average man who held the place of master in those Roman schools, to which we can, without much use of imagination, trace the curriculum and to a lesser degree the method of our modern secondary school, was not one with whom we should like to acknowledge fellowship. To what extent those men were administrators we may not know. Most likely few had even a single assistant under them. They met their boys in little groups and taught them, usually in rooms originally used for other purposes. There was little change

in subject-matter as Roman needs and ideals changed, and so we may assume that the schools lacked that vital consciousness of social service and responsibility to which the better schools are so sensitive today. We owe much to the Roman schools but little to the masters who taught in most of them.

There were masters in the early years of the Renaissance with whom we might more gladly strike hands in professional fellowship. It was Vittorino who, toward middle life, engaged to teach the children of the noble Gonzala at Mantua, historic city, where he built a school and taught for many years. Did he have assistants? Did he face and solve the problems of organization and of community service? Did he meet changing social needs? We do not know. We know that his ideal was to make his boys pious, to see that they were well grounded in literature and history, conscious of their responsibilities as young citizens, and fit physically to carry forward the active work of men.

But in the next century the search for definite organization of secondary education under a supervisor, director, or principal is rewarded in specific terms. The Brethren of the Common Life, a godly group of scholars in the Netherlands, had developed schools surprisingly modern in character. Instead of individual instruction to small groups of boys, they had evolved classes with at least a suggestion of grading. Instead of expecting each teacher to present the whole of the program of studies, they had begun to specialize, each doing that for which he had peculiar gifts or training. To these Dutch masters there came about 1515 a German lad, John Sturm, by name, who was to become by far the greatest administrator of secondary education of his century. After his secondary and university training had been completed, young Sturm served his apprenticeship as teacher, as must every successful principal today. Then, at twenty-nine, he came to Strassburg as rector or principal of a new secondary school for boys in that historic city. With wisdom beyond that of his years and period, and with a skill rarely found, even today, he organized the Strassburg *Gymnasium* so effectively that it became a model of all those great secondary schools which Germany produced in a later century. But preliminary to this organization, he apparently inspected the entire educational equip-

ment of the city or, in modern phrase, conducted a genuine survey and, in light of its findings, builded his school to serve the higher scholastic needs of that community. In a short time the school, established on this scientific basis, numbered six hundred boys or more, this at a time when, as a rule, secondary schools were small, usually a score or two of boys clustered about a single master.

It seems that Sturm himself did not teach much. So under his direction there must have been a considerable group of men to carry out the extensive curriculum, largely classical of course, occupying the boys from the age of about ten to nineteen or twenty. Of course, in harmony with the demands of the time, practically all subjects were presented in Latin and Greek, German, the despised vernacular, finding place only in the rote work in religion in the earlier years. By the time the boy was fourteen he was expected to do his thinking in school, in church, and on the playground in Latin and in Greek. Yet the program was a rich and generous one for the times. There was a vast amount of literature read, extensive drill in style, fine distinctions in the art of speech, with much attention to dramatics during the last three or four years of the course. Sturm taught only part of the advanced work in rhetoric and style, apparently giving the major part of his time to the administration of his school, as a good principal must always do. Yet, he wrote extensively, essays, books, and pamphlets that surely have a modern ring. Among the books for definite use in schools were a Latin grammar, a beginner's Latin book, several compositions, and books on style and rhetoric. In the professional field, for the use of his own teachers and others, we find such modern problems discussed as principles of education, school organization, educational values, teachers' salaries, relation of parent and school, entrance requirements, discipline and conduct of pupils, how to bring education within the reach of poor boys, class instruction against individual instruction, the responsibility of the teacher, and the like. Besides all this, Sturm took time to examine other schools in Germany, on invitation, making recommendations for their reorganization and planning state-wide systems of secondary education. It is said that John Sturm formalized the learning of the Renaissance and placed its free spirit in bondage. If he must bear this reputation through the ages, it is because he organized sec-

ondary education so effectively that those who followed him were content to accept it without such changes as new conditions always demand and which men of his type will ever have the courage to make. Sturm was not only a wise administrator, a scholar, and a prolific writer but also a builder of curriculums, a student of values, an authority among his colleagues, and a commanding figure in educational leadership in Europe for two score years or more. He carried forward a voluminous correspondence, not only in Germany but in other lands as well. Roger Ascham, the famous teacher of Queen Elizabeth, was one of his great admirers, and doubtless Sturm influenced education in England whence came to new America a few years later the early masters of our Latin grammar schools.

But, while from the time of Sturm there were in Germany, the Netherlands, and perhaps in France, rather numerous secondary schools patterned after that of Strassburg and differing not so much from our own great high schools, the movement toward effective organization among English-speaking people was not rapid. Some of the great public schools of England trace their history back to the time of Sturm, but there is evidence that most of them were for many years small, not widely influential, with a single master whose chief duty it was to teach, his administrative functions being confined apparently to cruel, frequent flogging, the great stimulus to the learning of the age. In Rugby, for example, a single master carried the entire teacher burden until twenty years after Latin grammar schools were established in America. Not until 1653 is there recognition that the master might be in need of an assistant. In that year the fundamental laws of Rugby were modified to provide that "if the trustees find the multitude of scholars to be too great for one man's teaching, they are either themselves to find, or to enjoin the schoolmaster to provide an usher, and to allow him such salary out of the over-plus of the returns, which would otherwise come to the master, as they see fit."

We do not know that any assistants were provided at that time, but it is clear that in about 1700 the master, Henry Holyoake, was selecting his own assistants, of whom he must have had three or four. Yet the head master at Rugby was not delegating his responsibility in the conduct of the school to subordinates to any great extent even

as late as 1750. In that year Rugby moved into a new building which had within its central hall a sort of throne or dais where the head master might sit and personally supervise the work going on under the direction of several assistants.

The early laws or regulations providing for English schools in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries gave little administrative authority to the masters, and not until the early part of the eighteenth century is the term "head master" in common use. Richard Mulcaster, the great educational writer of his period, an effective head master for forty years, complains that "the *proper* use of assistants or ushers is not as we now see it in our schools, where ushers are their own masters, but to help the head master in the easier part of his work." He clearly saw the need of placing in the master's hands a degree of responsibility for the control of the entire school. Yet, apparently, the qualifications for master or assistant, if he had one, remained the same for many years. For example, we learn that under the school charters of the times the master or usher, as the case might be, must be master of arts, either married or single, whole in body, sober, discreet, honest, and learned in good, clean Latin literature and Greek, "if such can be gotten." He must be twenty-seven years of age at least, apt to teach and severe in discipline. Moreover, the youth were to be protected from the leadership of an immoral master, for no one should be admitted to the school, either as master or as usher, if on investigation he was found to be licentious, addicted to common swearing or drunkenness, a haunter of ale houses or "otherwise scandalously lavish in unnecessary expenditures," or if given to wanton dalliances and unseemly behavior with women, a follower of vain, gaudy fashions of apparel, a papist, a wearer of long curled hair, a puffer of tobacco, or addicted to dicing, carding, or other unlawful games.

The trustees, under the charters, retained a large degree of control over the pupils, leaving little in the way of making rules or regulations to the initiative of the so-called head master. For example, it would seem that a school would almost run itself when, about the time of good Queen Bess, no boy could come to school wearing a dagger, a hanger, or any other "weapon invasive," except that he might bring with him his meat knife. Further, it was for-

bidden by the rules that any boy should make an "affray" on the master or even on the usher, on pain of leaving school for a period of one month. And if any turbulent boy should make a second "fray" on the person of the head master or usher, he was forced to leave school for two months; on return, if he yielded to his passions and made a third "fray" on aforesaid sacred person, he was to be "banished from the school forever without any favor."

Yet even in those crude times may be seen developing in England the germs of that administrative leadership which characterizes the modern high-school principal. For evidence one need but sketch the writings of Richard Mulcaster, the practical, effective master, first of Merchant Taylors' and later of St. Paul's, both numbered among England's greatest schools at the time, both still engaged in their gracious task of training English boys for citizenship. Mulcaster entered on his work as head master at the organization of Merchant Taylors in 1561. Shortly he had under his direction 250 boys, with three assistants. Of Mulcaster one of his pupils says, "Others have taught as much learning with fewer lashes, yet his sharpness was the better endured because impartial, and many excellent scholars were bred under him." Notwithstanding the fact that Mulcaster complains that under the regulations of the school he had little vested authority over his assistants, he apparently fought rather steadily and consistently for his rights as head master. Indeed, the occasion of his leaving after a service of twenty-five years was friction with the trustees who were reluctant to give up to professional leadership the rights and duties assigned under the charter to the laymen in control. Apparently Mulcaster was actively concerned, as Vittorino was before him, in the health of his boys. He was an earnest supporter of supervised athletics, believing in the strenuous game of football, of which he said, "Football could not possibly have held its present prominence, nor have been so much in vogue as it is everywhere if it had not been very beneficial to health and strength." He observes the common abuse of the game and advises that there always be provided a coach or, as he calls him, a trained master, for, he says, "if there is someone standing by who can judge of the play and is put in control over the players, then objections can be easily removed."

While Mulcaster was obliged under the rules to admit only boys to the school, he was two hundred years in advance of his times in his ideas concerning the education of girls. He would have all children, girls as well as boys, given at least the tool subjects, physical training, and music. "But young maidens," he writes, "must give me leave to speak of boys first, because naturally the male is more worthy and more important in the body politic."

He had a keen appreciation of the social and economic function of education. He was concerned because it was so evident that the schools of his period were not reaching all of the boys who should have been educated. Yet, he felt that only those should be admitted to higher education who were youth of genuine promise. "There is always danger," he warns, "to a state in excess of numbers beyond the opportunities of active employment, and this is especially true in the case of scholars; too many leads to disquiet and sedition."

He held, also, as does the modern principal, that the natural capacities of the boy should be studied and the school work adapted to them.

There is a familiar note also in what Mulcaster said about higher institutions of learning. He criticized these institutions sharply for their failure to turn out effective teachers for schools. He suggested such a reorganization of higher education as would provide for teachers' colleges, fitted to prepare the students for the life-work of teaching. He urged, too, a larger degree of uniformity in subject-matter and method, so that one who must change schools or teachers need not suffer. In his ideals of discipline one might not agree with him in his frank, positive advocacy of corporal punishment. He said, "The rod can no more be spared in school than the sword in the hand of the prince. By the rod I mean some form of correction to inspire fear."

In these early days the English schoolmasters were energetically working out a program which has been crystallized in the traditions of English teachers everywhere. They recognized, from the days of Mulcaster at least, the importance of what we call extra-curricular activities. They developed the corporate life of the school as one of the most important of educational agencies. Discipline, under the wise guidance of the masters, finally came to be a school function

carried out chiefly by the older boys. The master flogged, of course; he does today, but no minor infractions of the traditions of the school or cases of conduct unapproved on the part of the boys ever reached the master, being settled in accordance with the rough, manly customs of English boys on the playground or in the seclusion of the dormitory.

We find that in the first secondary schools in our own country, the Latin grammar schools, there was little need of the administrator for precisely the same reasons that a century before there was little need of such in England. The schools were small, serving but a limited portion of the people; and while we look to Ezekiel Cheever as a great schoolmaster and educational authority, he was not, in the modern sense, an administrator. He taught and flogged and wrote. He inspired boys; he stood a worthy type of citizenship in his community, but his administrative duties were limited to the routine of a little school and, at most, to an organization requiring but one teacher in addition to himself.

It is our next type of secondary school, the academy, which, in the course of its development, produced a principalship comparable to that which is found in the *Gymnasium* of Strassburg under Sturm. The earlier academies were not far different in organization from the Latin grammar schools which they rapidly displaced during the early national period. In general, the time-honored name "master" was applied to those who taught in the new schools. Sometimes there was a head master with an assistant or two, usually called ushers, as in England and the colonial Latin grammar schools. While some of the academies developed into good-sized schools, requiring a corps of a half-dozen or more teachers and giving opportunity for considerable exercise of administrative functions, the vast majority were small, with a great number of single-teacher institutions. Indeed, it appears that at the height of the development of the academy, about 1850, the average number of teachers per school was but two. So here again, as in the English schools and in our own Latin grammar schools, the relative need for administration was small, far overshadowed by the teaching function.

In the academies that attained considerable size the school heads were known by varying titles, such as head master, rector, preceptor,

provost, and occasionally principal. At Phillips Andover, one of the truly great academies of New England, the official title of Eliphalet Pearson, the first head, was preceptor, but in the records he is frequently referred to as Principal Pearson; and in 1786 the title was so designated in the contract with the new principal.

Shortly before the Civil War the free public high school was beginning to take the place of the academy. Many of these schools retained the name academy with the prefix "free." Even yet, in isolated instances in some of the eastern states, the term "free academy" is applied to the public high school. In the first high school set up in 1821 in Boston for the instruction of the "sons of the mercantile and industrial classes," the teachers were known as masters and ushers; but some of the schools established in the same decade used the title "principal" for the head, one such being the short-lived but famous high school for girls established in Boston in 1825.

Very early in the high-school movement new administrative duties and responsibilities were required of the principals. The schools, being free, attracted large numbers and drew students from all classes of society, imposing on the principal the necessity of some sort of classification. The limited elective principle, developed to some extent in the academy and taken over by the high school, called for a larger teaching staff and for a more careful organization. Easily and naturally the head teacher took over these duties. He was, of course, forced finally to lighten his teaching load, and since he was usually the ripest scholar in the particular group of teachers, he retained the more advanced subjects, even as John Sturm had done three hundred years before. Thus scholarship, the traditional characteristic of the head master, organizing ability, and certain qualities of leadership came to be demanded of him who was to head the teaching staff of the new American secondary school.

With the development of the city school superintendency, near the middle of the nineteenth century, came the graded school system, crowned by the high school. The new official, the superintendent, was often less scholarly than the high-school principal. The latter, always a man until recent years brought women into the administrative field, commanded the respect of teachers, pupils, and the community at large, and naturally required the assistance of the superin-

tendent less than principals of the grade schools; so he was himself the natural guide and supervisor of the corps of teachers immediately under him. Thus he was often able to develop his office into one of great dignity and usefulness.

As public education developed still further, the graded system found its way very generally into the smaller places, where, in the West especially, the school head was usually principal of the high school and superintendent of the grades as well. In such cases, his chief interest tended to center in the fascinating activities of the high school. This in turn exalted the office of principal so that even yet in many of our smaller towns the superintendent is called, popularly and often affectionately, professor of the high school. With the increase in population and the accompanying multiplication of schools, the superintendent was forced to give up, often reluctantly, his duties in the high school, turning them over to his chief assistant and giving him the title of high-school principal.

Notwithstanding the long history of the evolution of this office, it is still in the process of becoming. Opportunity for still further development is suggested by the character of the problems with which state and national associations of high-school administrators are now wrestling, such as the junior high school, teacher-training in secondary schools, vocational courses, health programs, aesthetic values, continuation courses, high-school costs, and a score of others. The modern principalship has come to mean far more than an office for the successful management of a corps of teachers and a hundred or a thousand adolescent youth who are to be put in possession of, or at least exposed to, a set of facts approved by custom or required by the traditions of college or university. Thirty years ago, when, through the National Education Association, our first great study of the secondary curriculum was made, few voices were raised in protest against the dictum that the courses then required for admission to the standard colleges were also best for the boy who was to close his scholastic career on graduation from the high school. The past decade has witnessed a remarkable change in the attitude of reflecting people. The swift years of the high-school age are now regarded as too precious to be filled with subjects of study not proved to be rich in content value to the individual chiefly concerned, the

student himself. Today the question is not, What does the college want? but, What does the pupil need? Those in charge of our secondary schools have rather recently set themselves the task of answering this question. They are making a serious study of the real objectives of secondary education, with the result that instead of rigidly adhering to curriculums largely prescribed under conditions of life far different from those now prevailing, schools are emphasizing studies and activities designed to lead to better health, more effective wealth-producing power, intelligent parenthood, good citizenship, skill, appreciation, and happy social life. The high-school principal has become a builder of curriculums, not the administrator of those already made. It is he and his teachers who are near the people, sensitive to their needs, responsive to their demands.

John Sturm built his curriculum after he had studied the requirements of the city he was to serve. He builded well, too well, perhaps, for later men of shorter vision not able to make adjustment a continuous process. Like him, the modern principal is turning to his field, to the people living in it, in order to determine the most pressing problems that the school should help to solve. Then he, with his colleagues and associates, is trying to develop a scientific technique in the making of curriculums, by means of which, with as little waste as possible, the youth may prepare for most effective participation in the worthy activities of life.

The high-school principalship, then, while still expanding rapidly, has already become an important element in our educational organization, and the man who combines power of organization and qualities of leadership with a love for older youth and with ability to catch and fix their imagination, will find few callings in which he can be happier than in the administration of this office. The institution over which he presides is no longer a handmaiden of higher education. It is an institution close to the lives of an ever increasing proportion of our people, and he who stands at its head is, as we indicated in the beginning, a guide, a leader in progress, occupying a place of peculiar responsibility, and securing a reward indescribably rich in the love of human beings at their best.

TEACHING FOR THE SAKE OF VOCATIONAL CHOICE IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

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Determination of capacity for economic service on the part of every prospective citizen is quite as important under a theory of democratic organization of society as it is under a theory of state socialism. Equality of opportunity is fully as dependent on such determination as is the efficiency of the state, for in the theory of democracy self-realization in and through vocation for the individual is of equal or greater significance than his efficiency in the production of a margin of utilities for social consumption, whether of commodity or of service. The achievement of efficiency as a productive unit in the social organization is not, as it is under the doctrine of state socialism, the prime objective of selection for economic capacity. Thus, in a country like ours, any means to such determination must place election before selection. Indeed, choice in itself is an essential element in any equalization of opportunities. All that a democratic society can do is to provide for the prospective citizen the basis in experience necessary to make his choice genuine or intelligent.

In the light of the foregoing thesis the proposition which has been put forward by many and earnest advocates, that the function of formal education in the rural community is to bond the country boy and the country girl to the soil, is unacceptable. The fact that a child is born on the farm is not at all an indication that he can in largest measure realize his birthright and serve his fellows by remaining on the farm. Any system of education designed to limit resources of self-discovery is restrictive both of the rights of the child and of the progress of society. On the contrary, it is a prime obligation of democratic society to provide for prospective citizens who happen to be born in the country every possible avenue of self-discovery that may lead to the central life activity of the normal citizen—his vocation.

So far as the basis of experience which society can provide for intelligent choice of life pursuits on the part of prospective citizens is concerned the following postulates are offered:

1. It must result in the understanding both of essential requirements and of significant opportunities in (a) the vocation itself, (b) the life implied in pursuit of the vocation, (c) the preparation implied in acceptance of the vocation.
2. It must take one, two, or all of the following forms, whether under formal or informal auspices: (a) participation, (b) observation, (c) vicarious information.

Possible avenues to self-discovery in respect to vocation are determined by the factors of needs in understanding, modes of experience, and vocational resources of the community. The last is probably the chief variant to cause differences in particular communities or types of communities, such as urban and rural. A brief comparison, then, of the resources of the rural community with those of the urban community is a useful approach to the problem of providing every possible avenue of self-discovery leading to vocation for the country boy and the country girl.

The ordinary definitions of the rural community are based on population included in a definite political unit. The census agencies have long used the following classification: under 2,500, rural; 2,500 to 8,000, semi-urban; 8,000 and over, urban. In some states a community of rural classification may organize as a city, and in many states practically all of the semi-urban group are governed and denominated as cities. In New York a village, and in New England a town, may fall in the urban group of the census-taker. In New York, again, a community of less than 4,500 population is classed in the school laws as rural.

Size is by no means the determining factor in giving a community rural characteristics, but, on the whole, communities of less than 4,500 population, not residential or manufacturing adjuncts of good-sized cities, possess the principal attributes of the rural community. As a basis for discussion here the political unit is set aside. The rural unit is defined in terms of the social and economic contacts common to a group of not more than 5,000 people. In the South and the far West the majority of rural communities will include groups

of 2,000 or less in number; in the Middle West and in the north-eastern states many will approach the limit of 5,000.

The following generalizations may be made concerning the type of community defined as rural as compared with the recognized city type: (1) vocations are less numerous; (2) the vocations and the characteristic life modes that are their several accompaniments are less diverse in characteristic activities; (3) vocations are less specialized; (4) vocations are less markedly segregated; (5) vocations and their characteristic life modes are more likely to overlap in particulars and to contain common elements; (6) the proportion of vocations of the entrepreneurial type, such as call for the assumption of risk, the responsibility of ownership, and the accumulation of capital by the worker, is greater.

To illustrate concretely the bases on which the generalizations are made: in practically every rural community will be found examples of vocations in agriculture of both the entrepreneurial and the employee types, such as stockmen, dairy farmers, general farmers, fruit growers, and herdsmen, drovers, threshers, and farm hands; examples of employee vocations in transportation, such as truckmen, teamsters, section hands, and train hands (in passage, if not in residence); examples of employee vocations in communication, such as telephone and telegraph operators and postal employees; examples of vocations in government, such as supervisors, selectmen, trustees, constables, justices of the peace, tax collectors, and highway agents; examples of both entrepreneurial and employee occupations in commerce, such as the hardware dealer, the general storekeeper, the grain dealer, and their clerks; examples of entrepreneurial and employee vocations in manufacture, such as the miller, the tile-maker, the silo manufacturer, the iron founder, the box mill operator, the knitting mill operator, or any of a thousand types of manufacture, and in each case the operatives, male or female, foremen, bookkeepers, and clerks; examples of the trades, such as the carpenter, the mason, the blacksmith, and the garage man; examples of the professions, such as the minister or priest, the physician, the veterinary, the school principal, and the teachers; examples of the homekeeping or domestic service occupations in the housewives, housekeepers, hired girls, the dressmaker, the milliner, and the laun-

dress. The specific occupations and the number of persons engaged in them may vary, of course. But within the contact limits of the rural community will be found representatives of the majority of the great economic groups which characterize our national civilization.

In many rural communities of larger size diversity is likely to be considerably increased. There are, too, classes of vocations common to large areas which are not frequently found in rural communities throughout the country. Thus in many of the village communities of the northeastern states and in the county seat towns of the Middle West vocations outside of agriculture are to be counted, not on the fingers, but by the scores. In the southeastern states, in the northeastern states, in the North Central states, and in the Northwest the sawmill and its attendant vocations of the lumbering industry are to be found in most rural communities. In village centers the hotel and the restaurant appear, the coal and lumber yard, the newspaper and printing office, the surgeon, the dentist, the registered nurse, the bank, the real estate and insurance agency, the moving picture theater, the public library, the light and power plant, one or more factories, the druggist, the haberdasher, the dry-goods merchant, the tailor, the barber, the photographer, the plumber, the electrician, the chiropodist, the chiropractor, the stenographer, the traveling salesman, the attorney at law, and the superintendent of schools. In popular summer-resort and touring sections appear the summer camp, the tea-room, "Ye Gifte Shoppe," the gas and oil and "hot dog" stations, ever increasing in number and ubiquity. Along the coast of both oceans and the shore of the Great Lakes rural communities have direct contact with fisheries and shipping. Quarries, mines, and oil and gas wells are more abundant in the rural communities of many sections than in the cities.

In short, a detailed list of all of the occupations to be found in communities of less than urban standing would constitute by no means a minor fraction of the total that our American civilization has developed. The true community unit in the country rarely fails to possess resources usable in the development of a larger basis for intelligent choice of vocation than is possessed, probably, by

the average college student at graduation under a system which leaves to chance one of the momentous decisions of life.

The relative poverty of the rural community in resources is rather less than appears at first glance. Though in species and variety of vocations the rural community is normally much less rich than the city, it may be richer in genera of occupations. Consider, for example, the following occupations: agriculture, forestry, shipping and fisheries, mining, land transportation, communication, commerce, manufacture, mechanic trades, professions, government, domestic service. Agriculture and forestry are almost exclusively of the country. Location rather than size of population determines in the case of a community whether or not shipping, fisheries, or mining shall be present. Of the rest, none is exclusively of the city.

The range of species and varieties in each of the great genera named is enormous, and the differences between species and between varieties within one of them may often be more conspicuous than their likenesses. Thus it cannot be assumed that knowledge of one or even of several vocations in a genus is sufficient to intelligent choice of any of its component species or varieties. Knowledge of the work of the canal boat captain will not enable a boy to determine his fitness for command of an ocean liner; ability in the driving of a motor truck and knowledge of its mechanical details will not prove capacity for the job of the locomotive engineer; experience in selling hardware to farmers is not final evidence of ability to sell clothing to wholesalers, and so on. Nevertheless, there are common elements in the specific vocations of an accurate generic grouping, and the presence in a rural community of a vocation even in small measure representative of a class is a valuable resource, particularly as a basis for interpretation of vicarious information concerning allied vocations not to be found there.

Because vocations in the country and the life modes dependent on them are less numerous and less diverse than those of the city, the opportunities for participation and first-hand acquaintance with them through observation are less in range than in the city. No contact may be had with many vocations and modes of living which may, conceivably, open the most hopeful opportunities to particular boys and girls. But because vocations and modes of life are less

specialized, the range of experiences within one, two, or three of them will often be greater than can be had in a like number or even in a much larger number of vocations in the city. The experiences of farm work and farm life on a dairy farm, for example, will be greater in range than the experiences in employment for an equal length of time in a factory or behind the counter of a department store.

It has already been suggested that the mere fact of being a country boy or country girl is good insurance of some sort of vocational participation. For the village youth certainly and for the boy or girl of the farm increasingly with the development of good roads and the use of the automobile, a great deal of vocational experience through observation may be relied on. In a recent study of vocational education in the rural schools of New York some eighteen hundred boys and girls enrolled in high-school courses in agriculture and homemaking reported on their vocational activities apart from those directed by a teacher. Nine boys in ten had participated in the work and the life of some vocation of diversified farming. Ninety-seven girls in a hundred had participated in the housekeeping of farm or village homes. Undoubtedly, as between farming of a particular kind and not farming, and between housekeeping of a particular sort and not housekeeping, those boys and those girls have some basis for interpretation of information concerning other kinds of diversified farming or possibly some other vocations in domestic service. But such experience is limited in two ways even within the very field of it.

In the first place, because of its particularity or singularity, the farm or home has been in many cases far from representative of the standards of that type of farming or that type of home. If the home farm, for instance, be a general farm, dairy farm, fruit farm, or what not, of adequate resources and normal standards, well and good. But often, we may be sure, in the case of high-school boys and girls and more often among those who do not enter high school, the home farm is not a good example of the possibilities of its type either in vocation or in the mode of life that accompanies it. Meager resources of equipment and poverty-driven parents may result in an environment not favorable to realization of the possibilities of such farming and such a home.

In the second place, the range of activities of participation by informal means is likely to be much less than is possible even to the limitations of youth. The work of the boy or girl on the farm and in the village is more nearly that of the "hired hand" than that of the responsible farmer or home manager. Only a tiny fraction, less than one in a hundred, of the boys and girls in the New York rural schools reported activities clearly indicating responsible planning and organization, both of which are characteristic of any vocation of farming or of the vocation of the homekeeper. When an economic end dominates the assignment of duties to the boy or girl, it is almost inevitable that a relatively permanent division of labor between father and son or between mother and daughter occurs.

It is not possible, often, that the boy can become a farmer in the sense that his father is a farmer, or that the girl can become a homekeeper in the sense that her mother is a homekeeper. But the "supervised practice" arrangements of vocational schools and, to some extent, of the "club work," already conducted in rural communities have shown clearly that two things can be accomplished on the farm and in the farm home which are not likely to be accomplished when no educative end is in view. There can be provided a much larger interchange of duties between father and son and between mother and daughter, while most of the advantages of division of labor are preserved, than is common now. Provision for participation in responsible planning and management can be made through the "home project" organization without upsetting the orderly economy of the farm or the home. Informal and incidental experience of vocation in daily life does not develop the educational possibilities of it as can an experience organized and directed to educative ends.

A great many country boys and girls gain experience in vocations as employees. Of the boys who reported in the survey mentioned eighty-two and of the girls fifty-nine in a hundred had worked for hire, for the most part in summer vacations. Probably among those in the lower grades of the public school the proportion is less, but among those who have left school before or during the high-school period it is higher. It is significant that only one boy in four had worked as an employee in a vocation outside the farming group.

Four girls in five had worked for hire outside of homekeeping, but only two in five in vocations outside of agriculture also. The evidence is fairly clear that employment for hire for short periods is a means to participation capable of very useful development.

In many vocations of the entrepreneurial type outside of farming and homekeeping and in the professions genuine participation is rarely possible for the boy or girl. The adolescent may, on a small scale, become a merchant proprietor. But he cannot become a manufacturer, teacher, lawyer, physician, or pastor. He may, however, be employed by the merchant or the manufacturer or occasionally by the professional man. But what the boy or girl learns of business or the profession through such employment is largely through observation of the activities of the employer. On the other hand, employee vocations furnish many opportunities for genuine participation, some, like the skilled trades, permitting responsible planning on a project basis. The need for a definite arrangement with the employer to secure for the employee the largest range of experience within the vocation is not so exigent as in the highly departmentalized and segregated vocations of the city. But care must be used here also, for the same economy that sets the boy on the farm at work on the chores and the girl washing dishes and making beds operates with the carpenter's assistant, the clerk in the store, or the girl in the tea-room. There are many experiences that the boy and girl should have for educative profit which they will not have if that sort of profit is not considered. Though the experiences of the employee in the country are relatively varied as compared with those of his brother in the city, they can be made even more varied with benefit to him and with little injury to his employer. When employment for hire is made a means to the education of the youth for intelligent choice of vocation, the terms of employment should recognize his needs as well as those of the employer.

Participation is the most fundamental means to the gaining of vocational meanings and standards, even though in the history of prevocational teaching and vocational guidance it has usually come in a bad third, if placed at all, behind information and observation. It is vital and subjective as observation can never be. Its

limitation is in its lack of scope. In that respect observation, second only to participation in degree of vividness and actuality, has the advantage. But there is one weakness of incidental and informal observation which does not apply equally to informal participation. As a matter of community living the village boy frequently—and the farm boy in these days by no means infrequently—comes into contact with vocations other than those of parent and employer. He knows the blacksmith and his job in its objective features, the storekeeper and his job, the mail carrier, the station agent, the carpenter, the garage man, the school teacher, the minister, and so on, in greater or less detail and with greater or less accuracy. He has them "sized up" in a more or less intelligent way as a mere matter of undirected and unsystematic experience. But which of the vocations and which of their activities he observes and the degree of attentiveness that he gives to each are largely matters of accident or of native interest. That he will, if brought in contact with all, observe some more attentively than others, know more of the job of the butcher, the blacksmith, the carpenter, the garage man, and the mail carrier, than he will of the job of the teacher who meets him daily through thirty weeks of the year or of the minister whom he hears and sees fifty odd times in the year, or of the physician who drops in on the family from time to time, is normally probable; but that he will see the blacksmith as often as the minister, or the sawyer as often as the storekeeper, and so on, is largely a matter of chance. With the girl a more restricted acquaintance is likely but again unpredictable beyond a few vocations. Thus, directed and systematic observation complementary to participation is the means to large utilization of the vocational resources of the country. Though there be in the country less of variation in life modes of vocations than in vocations themselves, the same need for observation is there, particularly for the acquirement of good and attainable objective standards.

Materials for the acquirement of vicarious information concerning vocations and modes of life, urban as well as rural, have not been listed among the resources of the rural community. Such are largely to be found in the library, as books, magazines, and pictures, or in the lecture-room or moving-picture theater. In all such

resources of information the rural community is limited. Those usable for the enlargement of knowledge of economic activities are very few, if present at all. Neither the private library nor the school library is likely to contain many volumes that give closer insight into the careers of present-day Americans than the story of Silas Marner or the biographies of David Crockett, Abraham Lincoln, and Theodore Roosevelt. Such are excellent books, but of little value in enabling the boy or girl to choose intelligently a life career. Chautauqua lectures and visiting ministers and politicians do not talk about such "vulgar" things as the vocations through which men render service to their fellows; the moving-picture theater whirls through the "educational feature," which may occasionally have some bearing on vocation, in order to reach quickly the more exciting "feature."

But through the study of books and magazines, the hearing of lectures, and the seeing of pictures must come very largely, apart from travel, "experience" of vocations and modes of life which lie outside of the activities of the rural community. If such resources are to be used, they must be provided with a conscious purpose, and the use of them must be directed. But their usefulness is almost wholly dependent on the already acquired experience of the boy or girl. To describe the requirements and the operations of a distant vocation to a youngster who lacks experience in anywise comparable is to waste time and words. He will understand the description just to the extent that it makes contact with his apperceptive basis. Thus the little East-sider who had studied the Holstein cow: "She was black and white like a quilt; she had four legs like a dog; she gave milk in bottles to the milk wagon; she had horns to blow 'Moo' when she was hungry, and she was the size of a mouse"—he had a picture in his book to prove it. The teacher who begins with information and ends with participation, if he ever gets to it, is following the tradition of school teaching, but he has put the cart before the horse. Informational studies get their meaning for the boy or the girl by reference to knowledge already possessed. They must grow out from the knowledge acquired through less vicarious contacts.

One means to selection, widely advocated among "determinists," must be referred to. That is the sin against science denominated "vocational guidance test." Under the pressure of standardized subjects and standardized progression in the school system the administrator and the teacher are driven to welcome anything that appears to provide a short cut to the accomplishment of a social obligation. When a substitute for experience is offered, there is great demand for it. Certainly among the knowledges which the youth should possess to make intelligent choice of vocation is knowledge of his own attributes in their relation to possible vocations. If a scientific determination is made of the specific traits and proficiencies necessary to success in specific vocations, and means are devised to determine in advance of experience the possession of specific capacities and limitations of capacity, it is legitimate and desirable that we use such a measure, not to place the youth in a vocation or in specific training for a vocation, but to guide him in placing himself appropriately. So far neither scientific analysis of vocations nor scientific measurement of specific traits has been developed sufficiently to be used for the guidance of a particular individual in his choice of a particular vocation. No competent psychologist pretends that the intelligence test measures more than a single aspect of intelligence, or pretends that such measurement has more than a modicum of accuracy, if any, for the individual who is measured, or pretends that it is useful for more than rough group prediction. No man of science will pretend that a classification of vocations according to a rough estimate of the normal length of schooling possessed by those who follow them or by such criteria as that they are pursued on the soil or carried on in a factory building or have something to do with the movement from place to place of some sorts of commodities and all kinds of persons, is a classification on the basis of specific situations.

Yet there have been set up standards determined by the use of an invalid measure applied to indeterminate groupings of workers which are called "vocational standards." Such standards have then been made the basis of reference on a scale of results from the same invalid test. When we are able to refer for Johnny Jones

his invalid I.Q. to the invalid I.Q. of the "professional" vocations we have made a "vocational guidance" test for Johnny. But neither we nor he have any knowledge of what he is fit for or what he is unfit for, nor in what ways he is fit or unfit for anything that the physician, the lawyer, the minister, the school superintendent, or the high-school teacher of mathematics has to do. A sin against science may be passed over, but the crime that is committed against democracy and the future citizen of a democracy when such a tool is used for "placement" cannot be forgiven. As yet we have no substitute for experience in enabling a boy or girl in the country or anywhere else to choose intelligently his or her vocation.

There is a certain type of test, not denominated "vocational guidance test," which has a fairly established validity in determining large areas of mental deficiency. Such is the Binet-Simon test with its modifications and refinements. Further, we know enough concerning many specific vocations to be certain that individuals of imbecile or even moron type cannot attain happiness or render service in them. Thus we can, with reasonable accuracy, probably "guide" a few unfortunate individuals away from, if not into, definite vocations. In the same way a competent physician's examination of a boy or girl may be relied on to reveal major defects of health or physique, and our knowledge of certain vocations may be relied on to determine the relation of such defects to probable success or failure. The time will come, doubtless, when we shall be able to go much further than now in informing youth as to its potentialities, but the present "vocational guidance test" has no place in a democratic scheme of teaching for vocational choice.

As to the agency that shall undertake the teaching of country boys and country girls what is necessary and possible to intelligent choice of vocation the common opinion of educators is accepted. No rehearsal of reasons is here needed. The agency is the public school in that level given to diversified teaching for the sake of "finding"—the junior high school level. Assuming that an organization involving all of the essential functions of the junior high school will ultimately be made workable in the rural districts, I venture to suggest a plan for the development of the prevocational function. The plan centers in the provision of one or two teachers

for each rural community, employed for the full year rather than for the school year, equipped with the means of transporting small groups of pupils from place to place, and devoting their whole time, working out from the school, to teaching pupils the essentials of intelligent choice of vocation.

Such teachers must, of course, possess a greater range of qualifications than is now required of the teacher in either the junior or the senior high school. Probably few persons are now qualified for such a task. But qualified persons can be prepared if the demand be made. The educational service to be rendered is second in significance only to that of the elementary school. The demand will come. Qualified teachers will be prepared to serve and will be given the chance to serve, whether under such a plan as is suggested or under another and better. Until that is done "equality of opportunity," to which rural boys and girls are entitled the country over, will remain as it is, equal lack of opportunity.

THE COST AND FINANCING OF STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

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The material presented in this article was gathered through a questionnaire prepared and sent out by the writer during April and May, 1922, to principals of high schools on the accredited list of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The investigation covered student publications of the annual, newspaper, and magazine types for the year 1921-22 and dealt with the following major divisions: (1) their purpose, (2) their nature and type, (3) their management, supervision, and direction, (4) their cost and financing, and (5) the attitude of business and professional men toward student publications.

Two hundred and twenty different high schools were represented in the returns. Of this number, ten were discarded because of lack of sufficient data to warrant tabulation. This left a total of 210 different high schools which are included in this study. Of these schools, 185 publish an annual, 129 a high-school paper, and 32 a high-school magazine. This makes a total of 346 different publications or approximately 1.65 per high school.

A further examination of the returns revealed that sixty-two schools publish an annual only; fourteen publish a paper only; nine publish a magazine only; 102 publish both an annual and a paper; ten publish an annual and a magazine; two, a paper and a magazine; and eleven, an annual, a paper, and a magazine.

For the sake of brevity and conciseness, it was found advisable to adopt a key (A, P, and M) to be used in all of the tables presented in this paper. It will be noted that these are the initial letters of the three publications studied. A, therefore, will stand for student annual; P for student (news) paper; and M for student magazine.

This discussion will deal, first, with the cost of student publications in the high schools investigated on the accredited list of the

North Central Association and, second, with the financing of these publications.

Table I shows the cost of printing the various publications in the high schools replying. An examination of this table reveals that

TABLE I
COST OF PRINTING STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

COST	NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS		
	A	P	M
\$ 0.....	6	29	2
1-\$ 100.....	0	2	0
101- 200.....	4	6	0
201- 300.....	3	5	1
301- 400.....	9	8	1
401- 500.....	19	9	2
501- 600.....	27	6	0
601- 700.....	13	7	2
701- 800.....	12	6	2
801- 900.....	14	10	1
901- 1,000.....	11	8	0
1,001- 1,100.....	7	3	1
1,101- 1,200.....	4	2	1
1,201- 1,300.....	3	0	0
1,301- 1,400.....	1	4	0
1,401- 1,500.....	4	2	1
1,501- 1,600.....	4	2	3
1,601- 1,700.....	3	2	3
1,701- 1,800.....	0	2	3
1,801- 1,900.....	1	2	2
1,901- 2,000.....	0	1	0
2,001- 2,200.....	2	1	0
2,201- 2,500.....	1	1	1
2,501- 3,000.....	1	0	0
3,001- 3,500.....	1	2	0
\$3,501-\$4,000.....	0	0	2
No answer.....	35	9	4
Total.....	185	129	32

the cost of printing the annuals in the 150 schools represented ranged all the way from \$0 in six schools to between \$3,001 and \$3,500 in one school. Those schools which stated that there was no cost in connection with the printing said that the printing was done in their own print shops. The total cost of printing the annuals in the other high schools was approximately \$116,110 or an average of \$806.25 per school. There are 120 high schools represented in the returns on the newspaper. Here the cost of printing

varied from \$0 in twenty-nine schools which did their own printing to between \$3,001 and \$3,500 in two schools. The total cost of printing the newspapers in ninety-one schools was approximately \$77,800 or an average of \$854.95 per school. In the case of the magazine, it is seen that the cost varied from \$0 in two schools that did their own printing to between \$3,501 and \$4,000 in two schools. The total cost of printing the magazine in twenty-eight schools was approximately \$37,050, the average cost being \$1,425.

TABLE II
COST OF ENGRAVING AND PHOTOGRAPHY IN
HIGH-SCHOOL ANNUAL

Cost	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	
	Engraving	Photography
\$ 0.....	0	11
1-\$ 50.....	0	29
51-100.....	2	34
101-150.....	5	12
151-200.....	4	9
201-250.....	8	6
251-300.....	16	4
301-350.....	12	4
351-400.....	22	0
401-450.....	7	1
451-500.....	22	4
501-550.....	3	0
551-600.....	18	0
601-650.....	5	0
651-700.....	8	0
701-750.....	2	0
751-800.....	2	0
801-850.....	1	0
851-900.....	5	0
901-950.....	0	0
951-1,000.....	7	0
1,001-1,100.....	2	0
1,101-\$1,200.....	2	0
\$1,200.....	0	1
No answer.....	32	14
Total.....	185	129

Table II shows the cost of the engraving and the cost of the photographic work in the annual in the various high schools replying. It will be noted that the cost of engraving ranged from \$51-\$100 in two schools to \$1,101-\$1,200 in two schools. The total

cost of engraving for the annual in 153 schools was approximately \$73,125 or an average of \$477.94 per school.

The cost of the photographic work in the annual ranged from \$0 in eleven high schools to \$1,800 in one school. The eleven schools which reported no cost for photographic work said that the photographers did the work free of charge, the only cost to the students being in case they wanted some pictures finished for their own use. The prevalence of this practice was a surprise to the writer but, after all, would seem to be good business on the part of the photographers. A further examination of Table II shows that \$451-\$500 in four cases was the most money spent for photographic work, with the exception of the one school in which the principal stated that \$1,800 was spent. This latter amount would seem to be an exorbitant or unusual one. Such an extravagant expenditure for photographic work for one annual cannot be justified.

The total cost of the photographic work in 104 schools was approximately \$14,225 or an average of \$136.78 per school. There is, indeed, a striking contrast between an average expenditure of \$136.78 and \$1,800 in the one high school.

Table III is the most interesting table in the entire study as it presents the total cost of the various student publications in the high schools included in this investigation. This table shows that the total cost of the annual ranged from \$201-\$300 in two schools to \$3,501-\$4,000 in four schools. The total amount spent for student annuals in 159 high schools is approximately \$220,950 or an average of \$1,389.62 per school. The range of expenditures in the case of the newspaper was from \$1-\$100 in four schools to \$5,001-\$6,000 in one school. The total cost of the student newspapers in the ninety-five schools replying was approximately \$90,400 or an average of \$951.58 per school. In the case of the student magazines the range in expenditures was from \$201-\$300 in one school to \$3,501-\$4,000 in two schools. The total cost of publishing the magazines in the twenty-six schools represented was approximately \$33,150 or an average cost of \$1,275 per school.

The total amount spent for the three types of publications in the high schools replying to the question of "total cost" is approximately \$344,500.

The fact that each school here represented is spending annually approximately \$2,000 on student publications is only one of the many evidences that the so-called extra-curricular activities of our

TABLE III
TOTAL COST OF STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

TOTAL COST	NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS		
	A	P	M
\$ 1-\$ 100.....	0	4	0
101- 200.....	0	6	0
201- 300.....	2	8	1
301- 400.....	2	4	1
401- 500.....	2	8	2
501- 600.....	3	8	0
601- 700.....	4	5	2
701- 800.....	7	3	2
801- 900.....	9	10	1
901- 1,000.....	16	8	0
1,001- 1,100.....	12	3	1
1,101- 1,200.....	13	4	1
1,201- 1,300.....	11	1	0
1,301- 1,400.....	20	4	1
1,401- 1,500.....	7	4	0
1,501- 1,600.....	7	1	3
1,601- 1,700.....	6	1	3
1,701- 1,800.....	4	1	3
1,801- 1,900.....	4	1	2
1,901- 2,000.....	6	2	0
2,001- 2,100.....	3	1	0
2,101- 2,200.....	1	1	1
2,201- 2,300.....	3	1	0
2,301- 2,400.....	2	1	0
2,401- 2,500.....	2	1	0
2,501- 3,000.....	6	2	0
3,001- 3,500.....	3	1	0
3,501- 4,000.....	4	0	2
4,001- 5,000.....	0	0	0
\$5,001-\$6,000.....	0	1	0
No answer.....	26	34	6
Total.....	185	129	32

high schools should no longer be masked under the term "extra-curricular" but should be regarded as a real and necessary part of the school's work and entitled to the same careful supervision and attention that is given to the various subjects in the curriculum. This is all the more urgent since every indication points to the fact that in the future more and more money will be spent on these

publications. It would be somewhat premature to state dogmatically that the surface has only been scratched in the matter of student publications, but the data presented in Table III force even the most skeptical to conclude that student publications are here to stay, and any inference that needed supervision and the expenditure of money for them will be less in the future would be equally inconsistent and premature.

It is evident from Table III that entirely too much money is being spent on the annual in comparison with the money spent on the other two types of publications; even though most of the principals, 130 to be exact, seem to think that the time and money put on the annual are well spent, one cannot help but feel that the expenditure for the annual should be scaled down and the expenditures for the paper and magazine scaled up, as the two latter publications unquestionably render a greater service to the school as a whole.

Table IV shows the sources of funds for the student publications as revealed by the replies to the questionnaires. By examination of

TABLE IV
SOURCE OF FUNDS FOR STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

SOURCE	NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS		
	A	P	M
Subscriptions.....	184	128	32
Advertising.....	152	82	25
Plays and entertainments.....	38	0	2
Clubs and organizations.....	70	3	0
Board of education.....	8	0	0
Each Senior taxed.....	4	0	0
Contributions from merchants.....	1	0	0
General fund.....	52	0	1

the table, it will be found that in the case of the annual, 184 principals stated that one source of finance is subscriptions; 152 listed one source as advertising; 52 principals gave "general fund" as a source of revenue, etc. It should be mentioned that one principal stated that his school published both the annual and the paper free of charge to the students of the school. In the case of the newspaper, 128 principals said that subscriptions are one source of

financial support: 82 replied advertising; and three gave clubs and organizations as a source of support. The sources of financial support for the magazine reveal somewhat the same situation as in the case of the annual and the newspaper.

Table V shows the amount of money obtained from advertisements in the various publications listed. In the case of the annual,

TABLE V
AMOUNT OF MONEY OBTAINED FROM ADVERTISEMENTS
IN STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

AMOUNT	NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS		
	A	P	M
\$ 0.....	12	14	0
1-\$ 100.....	6	7	0
101- 200.....	16	15	4
201- 300.....	30	13	3
301- 400.....	20	8	3
401- 500.....	23	4	3
501- 600.....	17	7	1
601- 700.....	14	4	1
701- 800.....	8	6	1
801- 900.....	5	2	3
901- 1,000.....	4	4	1
1,001- 1,100.....	1	4	0
1,101- 1,200.....	2	1	1
1,201- 1,300.....	2	3	0
1,301- 1,400.....	0	2	0
1,401- 1,500.....	1	1	1
1,501- 1,600.....	0	1	0
1,601- 1,700.....	0	1	1
1,701- 1,800.....	0	1	0
1,801- 1,900.....	0	1	0
1,901- 2,000.....	0	0	0
2,001- 2,500.....	0	0	0
2,501- 3,000.....	0	0	0
\$3,001-\$3,500.....	0	0	1
No answer.....	24	30	8
Total.....	185	129	32

it is seen that the amount of money raised from advertising ranges from \$0 in twelve schools to \$1,401-\$1,500 in one school. The total amount of money obtained in this way for 149 annuals is \$67,350, or \$452.01 per annual. The amount secured for the newspaper ranges from \$0 in fourteen cases to \$1,801-\$1,900 in one school. The total amount of money received from advertising in the paper is \$46,950 for eighty-five schools or \$552.35 per school.

In the case of the magazine, it will be seen that the range in the amount obtained from advertising is from \$101-\$200 in four schools to \$3,001-\$3,500 in one school; the total amount of money received from advertising in all of the schools replying is approximately \$16,700 or an average per school of \$695.83.

The figures in Table V show that there is more money obtained from advertisements in the magazine than from advertisements in either of the other two publications. This may be somewhat surprising to some, inasmuch as the magazine should perhaps carry as little advertising as possible, or better none at all, and instead devote its space strictly to material of the *belles lettres* type since there is need in our schools for this kind of a publication to take care of the creative writing ability of students and not merely to serve as a receptacle for advertising. However, accepting the fact that there is more money received from advertisements in the magazine than from advertisements in either the annual or the newspaper, the explanation would seem to be that generally speaking the magazine is published in the high schools of the larger cities and, such being the case, is able to get more advertising, while the annual and the paper are common to the small high schools as well as the large city high schools.

The total amount spent for advertising by business and professional men is approximately \$131,000. It may be possible that much of the money spent on advertising is considered as "charity," but it would seem that, in general, student publications must be considered a good medium in which to advertise; otherwise, such a large amount of money would not be spent for this purpose.

Table VI shows the amount of money raised by subscriptions in the case of the various high-school publications. From this table it is seen that the amount of money obtained from subscriptions in the case of the annual varies from \$0 in one school to \$3,001-\$3,500 in two schools. The total amount of money raised through subscriptions for the annual in 154 schools is approximately \$113,100 or an average of \$734.42 per school. In the case of the newspaper, the amount raised by subscriptions varied from \$0 in one school to \$3,001-\$3,500 in one school. The total amount of money raised in this way by the sale of the paper is approximately \$41,900 or an average of \$510.98 for each of eighty-two schools. The range in

the amount of money raised for the magazine through subscriptions was from \$101-\$200 in two schools to \$2,501-\$3,000 in three schools. The total amount of money received from the sale of the magazine in the twenty-five schools replying to the question is approximately \$22,750 or an average of \$910 per school.

TABLE VI
AMOUNT OF MONEY RECEIVED FROM SUBSCRIPTIONS TO
STUDENT PUBLICATIONS

AMOUNT	NUMBER OF PUBLICATIONS		
	A	P	M
\$ 0.....	1	1	0
1-\$ 100.....	1	6	0
101- 200.....	7	16	2
201- 300.....	9	20	4
301- 400.....	15	5	2
401- 500.....	16	6	2
501- 600.....	22	5	0
601- 700.....	23	6	3
701- 800.....	16	0	1
801- 900.....	7	5	2
901- 1,000.....	15	2	1
1,001- 1,100.....	1	4	1
1,101- 1,200.....	5	1	1
1,201- 1,300.....	2	1	1
1,301- 1,400.....	2	0	1
1,401- 1,500.....	4	1	1
1,501- 1,600.....	0	1	0
1,601- 1,700.....	2	0	0
1,701- 1,800.....	1	0	0
1,801- 1,900.....	0	1	0
1,901- 2,000.....	1	0	0
2,001- 2,500.....	3	1	0
2,501- 3,000.....	0	0	3
\$3,001-\$3,500.....	2	1	0
No answer.....	30	46	7
Total	185	129	32

These figures represent a total of \$177,750 raised through the sale of all of the publications in the high schools replying.

If the facts presented in this paper warrant any conclusion, it should be a stirring challenge to principals and teachers to recognize the great potential possibilities of student publications, to see that the purposes for which they exist in our schools are realized, and to direct and to account efficiently for the time, energy, and money expended on such activities.

SOME OUTCOMES OF THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

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The following account is submitted as being of interest at this particular time when the outcomes of educational efforts are being subjected to scrutiny. The investigation was undertaken primarily for the purpose of ascertaining the emphasis placed on political or military historical facts as compared with the emphasis placed on facts which represent advance in knowledge of the world in which we live. The motive for making the investigation was based on the belief that some of the outstanding facts with which history should in a measure deal are those associated with significant scientific discoveries. It is generally accepted that history should not be entirely a consideration of political or military events, but that equally important for effective interpretation of the present is some knowledge of the great industrial and social movements which have contributed largely to making human society what it is today. The results herewith brought together show some of the real outcomes of the teaching of history.

A list of fifty names was prepared extending from early Greek times down to the present. Two names belonged to conspicuous exponents of political and military movements, and these alternated with two of importance in the development of science. The names were printed on suitable sheets at the top of which certain information was called for and instructions given. When the tests were administered, however, the following oral instructions were added to insure complete understanding of what was required.

In your hand is a paper on which is printed the names of men each of whom has in some way made an important contribution to history. With many of them you have very definite associations; with others you may lack such entirely. The purpose of the test is to find out what associations you do have and how nearly correct they are. Suppose, for example, the name of George Washington were to be found. After it you would probably write "First president of the United States; guided its early destinies." In similar

manner after each of the names write a statement which will indicate your associations with it. Tell the nationality of the person and, briefly, what he did.

In May, 1919, the test was given to the whole student body of a prominent state normal school in the Middle West and later to the summer-school students of the same year. Over seven hundred papers were thus obtained. There is no reason to think that the student body tested was in any way exceptional in character. There is every reason to believe that it was typical of similar bodies of students throughout the United States.

From the papers, random samples were chosen, to the number of 200. Tabulations were made of the number of students who had pursued either in high school or in normal school, or elsewhere, a course, in (1) United States history, (2) English history, (3) modern history, (4) medieval history, (5) Roman history, (6) Greek and Roman history, or (7) ancient history.

The following method of scoring was devised. For each name one-half unit was allowed if the nationality of the person was known; one unit, if a correct classification was made, as, for example, "Euclid, a mathematician." Two points were allowed if, in addition to the nationality and the classification, there were also statements of what the person did, as, for example, "Newton, an English scientist, discoverer of Law of Gravitation"; or "Luther, German reformer, started Reformation." It is admitted that this is a purely arbitrary means of evaluating the results; nevertheless its uniformity of application gives a basis of comparison.

Of the 200 papers selected, thirty were rejected because of incomplete data concerning the courses in history taken or because the students answering were not high-school graduates. Of the remaining 170 students, 93 per cent had studied United States history; 31.7 per cent had studied English history; 51.1 per cent had studied modern European history; 52.3 per cent had studied medieval history; 5.8 per cent had studied Roman history; 23 per cent had studied Greek and Roman history; and 79.3 per cent had studied ancient history.

The total scores computed according to the method described gave the results shown in Table I. The evidence presented is indeed

interesting. The total of the scores of the first twenty-five names, which, incidentally, are almost entirely the names of scientists and contributors to scientific development, is 946. The total of the scores of the remaining twenty-five names, made up for the most part of military and political leaders and two famous movie stars, is 6,440. In other words, the correct associations with the second group are six and one-half times more numerous than those with the first group.

TABLE I

Name	Score	Name	Score
Galton.	.5	Alfred the Great.	167.5
Herschel.	.5	Newton.	171.5
Hellriegel.	.5	Gladstone.	180.0
Lamarck.	3.5	Alexander the Great.	186.5
Lucretius.	4.5	Charlemagne.	199.0
Hippocrates.	6.5	Burbank.	200.0
Lyell.	10.0	Bismarck.	205.0
Priestley.	13.5	S. F. B. Morse.	214.5
Tyndall.	14.5	Franklin.	224.0
Lavoisier.	15.0	Alexander Hamilton.	245.0
Huxley.	16.5	Cromwell.	253.0
von Helmholtz.	18.0	Henry.	261.0
Faraday.	20.5	Adams.	266.0
Agassiz.	22.5	Luther.	274.0
Laplace.	26.5	Dewey.	274.5
Copernicus.	42.0	Eli Whitney.	284.0
Harvey.	43.5	Caesar.	298.5
Linnaeus.	66.5	Fairbanks.	300.0
Galileo.	71.0	Magellan.	308.0
Euclid.	73.0	Napoleon.	308.5
Bacon.	84.0	R. E. Lee.	315.5
Archimedes.	84.5	George III.	319.0
Pasteur.	91.0	Charlie Chaplin.	326.0
Hannibal.	107.5	Grant.	328.0
Marconi.	110.0	Columbus.	331.0

Here is an opportunity for commenting on the kind of history teaching which we do not have. The unfortunate controversy within the church concerning Darwinism and evolutionism could never have taken on its present form had students been brought to see the problem in its true perspective.

In addition to the names listed in Table I the test included at the end the following: "State the chief associations you have with the name of Darwin." The replies to this part of the test are significant and indicate that nowhere had these students been correctly

informed of Darwin's contribution to the progress of scientific thinking. A tabulation of the associations with his name follows:

	Number of Times Mentioned
Theory of evolution.....	69
Man came from monkey.....	14
Survival of fittest.....	7
Scientist.....	4
Natural selection.....	3
Recapitulation.....	1
Literature.....	1
Common origin of life.....	1
Origin of species.....	9
Theory of man.....	1
Evolution of plants.....	1
Laws of heredity.....	2
Chemist.....	1
Botanist.....	1
Physicist.....	1
Theorist.....	1
Studied sociology.....	1
Theory of species.....	1
Descent of man.....	1
Biological theory of human race.....	1
New movement of evolution.....	1
An infidel.....	1

It is clear that the preponderant number of these adult people—students of history and teachers in our schools—ascribed to Darwin the authorship of the theory of evolution. They had not understood that the idea is a very old one and that what he did was to try to explain how it takes place.

Unexpected and ridiculous replies are always to be anticipated, but the following are especially choice:

Bismarck—An Englishman in many causes. An English statesman. A president of the United States. A noted Englishman.

Luther—Signed Constitution of the United States. Invented the Protestant religion.

Gladstone—General in the United States Army. American writer of English literature. Originated Gladstone tires. A president of the United States.

Newton—A novelist. Invented steam engine. Invented smelting. Inventor of steam (2).

Admiral Dewey—Fought and won victory on Lake Erie in War of 1812. United States admiral in world-war.

The influence of the kite story and the imperfect setting, as given in the histories, is evidenced in the following answers concerning Franklin:

	Number of Times Mentioned
Discovered electricity.....	75
Invented electricity.....	11
Invented stoves.....	5
Electricity.....	3
Discovered lightning.....	2
Lightning rods.....	2
President of United States.....	2
Founder of electricity.....	1
Identity of lightning and electricity.....	3

It is clear that these students knew very little about what some important people did. They were quite ignorant of the humble origin of ideas which today are playing very significant parts in the human drama and which possess possibilities of vastly increasing their influence therein. There is no reason to suppose that these people differ materially in their historical perspective from others like them in our teacher-training institutions. Did not Copernicus and Galileo give us a new universe? Is it not worth while, in man's history, to note the tremendous expansion of the human horizon following the work of the Herschels? Did not Faraday lay the foundation for our electrical age? How can the transition from the spirit of medieval times to that of modern times be apprehended in the absence of the focalizing works of Bacon? To understand those influences which have been operative in making human society what it is and in developing the philosophy back of our institutions, one needs to know more than the succession of political and military events which has so frequently made up the materials of textbooks. It is not the contention that history should deal entirely, or even for the most part, with the scientific developments which have taken place in the past, but rather that note should be made of important discoveries, with their bearings on the evolution of institutions and practices characteristic of the present.

It is undoubtedly true that ideals and attitudes are greatly influenced by a contemplation of what men have done, particularly if such is generally regarded as of great significance, and more

especially if the contacts be made in the periods of youth and adolescence when hero-worship and goal-setting characterize the reactions. Is not the life of a Priestley or a Lavoisier as important in its outcome as that of a Bismarck or a Cromwell? Did not Tyndall and Pasteur give to the world knowledge which has blessed it beyond calculation? Certainly the task of discovering Nature's secrets and of learning to make use of her forces is not complete. Great ambitions will follow the lead of great rewards. We need to re-evaluate our racial goals and to set our rewards upon those things which most nearly approach them. Room there is in the world for countless millions as soon as the energy is harnessed to make food and clothing and shelter, and we do not need to go about cutting each other's throats for something to do.

Science, in the larger sense, is a kind or mode of thinking. Its purpose is to proceed into the vast unknown and bring back pearls and rubies and diamonds in the form of laws and principles and to set them at work making life freer and better. The race needs to realize this. It needs to understand what science does and something of how it does it. Cannot history greatly aid in helping it do so?

Much maligned though it may be, the *Outline of History* has pointed in the right direction. The widespread interest it has engendered is good evidence of its value. And it seeks to show wherein some great scientific discoveries have had an influence in making the present what it is.

But the historian will say that it is not his business to deal with these matters; the scientist must do it. Herein lies the difficulty. The historian sees history in the conventional way; the scientist sees only a part of history. A well-trained teacher of history needs to see it all. He needs to see, not only the political, military, and institutional changes and successions, but also the rise of great ideas, the discovery of tremendously significant facts, the growth of philosophy, and then he must choose whereon emphasis needs to be placed. The real teacher of history needs a very broad contact with the world's storehouse of knowledge and how we came by it.

AN EXPERIMENT IN THE USE OF AN ANTHOLOGY

MARTHA JANE MCCOY

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The search for materials for an extensive reading course has led in many schools to the use of an anthology as a textbook. It serves a very real purpose in that it furnishes a large body of good literature in an accessible and compact form. In schools having poor library facilities it is indispensable; even in schools fortunate enough to have an almost unlimited supply of books for classroom reading tables, it is valuable. In the use of an anthology, however, there are dangers. As English instructors, we want our students to become book enthusiasts—to form what William Dean Howells called "literary passions." Can a literary passion be aroused by the use of an anthology? Isn't there danger that the student's only association in connection with the literature to which he is introduced will be that of the anthology and that literature will be to him, not a living reality made vivid by the personalities of authors and rare glimpses of background, but a hodgepodge of prose and poetry, in a large brown or blue book?

Some such question suggested the experiment described in this paper. The anthology was one of selections from American literature. It was used in a semester course offered to a group of twenty-nine Freshmen in the University High School of the University of Chicago. Since the reading tables with their large collections of books, a part of the equipment of every English classroom in the school, were not used in this course, the situation was analogous to that found in the typical high school. The purpose of this course was to familiarize the students with American literature and to help them to an enjoyment of it. The instructor wished to give reality to the literature of the past and to help the student to a realization of a bond between him and the author who best interpreted life for him. The question of the approach—whether it

should be chronological, geographical, by type, or by subject-matter—was not the chief problem. The instructor's desire was to stimulate the imaginations of the students so that they would reproduce for themselves the life portrayed in a book or the emotion in a poem. To do this, some biography and some history of literature were introduced as an "open sesame," never enough to make the students value such facts above the literature itself.

During the course the students had no definite assignments for home work, although they were urged to read at home anything from American literature in which they had become interested in class. The instructor attempted to arouse interest in the literature in the anthology by reading with the class selections from the author being studied, by reading selections not in their books, by occasionally interpreting a difficult selection, by telling biographical stories, and by giving glimpses into the historical background necessary to an understanding of the author. This usually occupied only a portion of the hour; sometimes, however, it was a full hour in length. It was always followed by a period or periods of silent reading of other selections in the anthology. If a student could secure a copy of a long work barely touched upon in class, e.g., *The Last of the Mohicans*, and cared to bring it to class, he was given permission to read it during the period.

At the end of the first two weeks of work the class was told of a plan whereby each member should publish a newspaper of interesting events in American literature. The plan was a very simple one which would result in nine news sheets fastened together with paper clips. Each student chose a name for his paper, the names ranging from the "U-High News Sheet" to the "New York Evening Post." From the students' suggestions, the instructor worked out with the class on the blackboard a model sheet which each student copied. After that, as he listened to the instructor's reading and discussion and as he read for himself, the student cultivated the reporter's instinct for a good story. On "newspaper day," one day every two weeks, he was ready with his idea for a news sheet. These ideas were anything that had attracted the students' attention: the publication of an important work, an interesting event in the author's life, or an unusual occasion in history which might be

related to literature. After brief consultation with the instructor, these sheets were written in class and criticized. Slight inaccuracies in unimportant details were allowed, since the main purpose was the arousing of interest rather than the production of a finished news sheet. On the following day the papers were corrected and copied. In the case of a few students who wanted to print or type their papers, permission was granted to take the sheets home for the final copying.

The newspaper days were looked upon with great interest. The students enjoyed writing their sheets and also exhibited keen pleasure in reading those of their friends. The class as a whole showed a great deal of originality and unusual willingness to work out details that would improve their newspapers. In their efforts to get good news stories, the students saw the author, his works, and his times with a vividness not commonly noted in history of literature courses. They developed a feeling of proprietorship for the authors they chose to write about; and in their desire to portray these authors more adequately, they read all they could find from them. In a three-day review conducted at the close of the semester, they talked intelligently of the works of fifty-four American authors and showed a fair knowledge of the chronology and geography of American literature. The anthology had become a sample book which had opened the whole field of American literature. In itself it meant nothing, but, as a director of outside reading, it was invaluable. That the anthology was regarded as a sample book—that it was a bridge between classroom work and wider reading—was due in large measure to this newspaper plan.

A clearer idea of this newspaper plan as well as a measure of the enjoyment the students had from the course may be found in the following sheets selected from various papers:

THE CARRIER PIGEON

NEW YORK—1832

IRVING WELCOMED HOME

NEW YORK CELEBRATES RETURN OF HER FAVORITE SON

The docks were the scene of much excitement yesterday when an expectant crowd watched the —— puff in. As the passengers disembarked, everyone's eyes were strained for a glimpse of America's best loved writer returning home

after seventeen years abroad. When a quiet unassuming man stepped on the gangplank, someone shouted, "Irving," and the cry was immediately taken up until the city rang with the great humorist's name. Many famous people were there to greet him, among them the mayor of the city, Daniel Webster, William Cullen Bryant, and Henry W. Longfellow.¹ Irving was escorted along streets decorated with banners. From every side flowers were thrown into his carriage.

Mr. Irving, after much persuasion, spoke of his future plans. He intends to remain in America and is planning a beautiful home, Sunnyside, on the Hudson just above Tarrytown. He has been so interested in the reports of progress he has received while abroad that he will very soon make a tour of the West with a party of friends.

THE WEEKLY GOSSIP

VOL. I.

BALTIMORE—1833

NO. 8.

YOUTH OF 24 WINS PRIZE

E. A. POE WINS FIRST PRIZE IN PROSE CONTEST

It will be remembered that a short time ago the *Saturday Visitor* offered prizes for the three best compositions submitted to them. A young man of twenty-four, Edgar Allan Poe, has won the first prize of one hundred dollars with his story "A Manuscript Found in a Bottle." Mr. Poe could easily have had second place also had it been permitted to give more than one prize to the same person. The second prize was won by _____ and the third by _____ with their stories _____ and _____. Mr. Poe shows great promise as a story writer. We hope to hear great things from him in the future.

THE COMET

NEW YORK—1878

VOL. 2.

W. C. BRYANT DIES

FALL PROVES FATAL TO POET AND JOURNALIST

Yesterday, William Cullen Bryant, American poet and journalist, died after an illness of a few days. Bryant made his last public appearance when he delivered his oration at the unveiling of the statue of Mazzini, the Italian patriot, in Central Park. While on the way to a friend's after the proceedings he fell and struck his head on the pavement. A sudden sunstroke is said to have been the cause of his fall. He has been unconscious most of the time since the fall.

For the last fifty years, Bryant has been editor of the *Evening Post*. His duties have not interfered with the writing of poetry which he has continued since he published "Thanatopsis" at seventeen years of age. The entire United States will mourn his death.

¹ Students were allowed to take liberties in giving lists of people, if those listed were contemporaries of the author.

The funeral services will be held on Saturday afternoon at Roslyn, his country home, after which he will be laid beside his wife.

THE NEW YORK SUN

VOL. I.

NEW YORK—1840

NO. 3.

COOPER WRITES NEW BOOK

NEW ADDITION TO THE LEATHERSTOCKING TALES TO BE

The Pathfinder

James Fenimore Cooper has published a new book which is said to equal the others of the Leatherstocking Tales. Although Mr. Cooper is having a little trouble with law suits at the present time, he seems to be making good progress with his books, and it is said that some people who are strongest in their criticism of him stay up all night to read his books. W. C. Bryant calls *The Pathfinder* "a glorious work." All those acquainted with Natty Bumppo or Deerslayer will be glad to renew the acquaintance in *The Pathfinder*.

THE TATLER

NEW YORK—1879

LONGFELLOW CELEBRATES SEVENTY-SECOND BIRTHDAY

PUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN OF CAMBRIDGE PRESENT HIM WITH ARMCHAIR

Henry W. Longfellow celebrated his seventy-second birthday yesterday. An interesting feature of the day was a gift of a huge armchair made out of the chestnut tree he so dearly loved. The "spreading chestnut tree" that Mr. Longfellow talked about in his "Village Blacksmith" had to be cut down because of certain street improvements. The school children of Cambridge had a chair made from the tree and presented it to Mr. Longfellow yesterday. The children all love Mr. Longfellow. He is always willing to see any child that comes to call on him no matter how busy he is at the time. Many times when he was younger he would play games with them as he met them coming from school. He was much pleased with the gift and wrote them a poem of thanks called "From My Armchair."

"The heart hath its own memory, like the mind,

And in it are enshrined

The precious keepsakes, into which are wrought

The giver's loving thought."

THE ELIMINATION OF FRATERNITIES AND SORORITIES IN THE TUCSON HIGH SCHOOL

GLEN O. PERKINS

Tucson High School, Tucson, Arizona

National fraternities were established in the Tucson High School in 1912. At that time a teacher, who had been a member of a well-known high-school fraternity, established a chapter of his organization in the school. The fraternity thrived, and at the present time there are thirty or forty members of that one organization in Tucson. Many of these members are now very successful young business men of the community. Later another national fraternity and two sororities were established.

On coming to this school two years ago, I inherited a condition that was said to be bad. There had been much talk of the so-called menace by parents and the Parent-Teacher Association. I was at once informed by some parents who were opposed to fraternities that my first duty and task should be the "ousting" of these societies.

On investigation, it was found that many of the real leaders of the school were members of these organizations. They seemed to have the good of the school at heart and so far as could be determined were not such a menace as some thought them. Indeed, in fairness to the fraternities and sororities, it must be said that the school suffered little, either at the hands of the individuals or from the societies themselves. For two years we studied the matter but during that time did not recognize the societies as belonging to the school. The names of the organizations were not used in the social column of our school paper, nor were their pictures placed in the yearbook, although their parties were given publicity in the daily papers. All of their social affairs were well conducted and properly chaperoned. Often the names of the principal and his wife appeared on their dance programs as patrons, while there was only the best of feeling between the members of these organizations and the

faculty. In fact, many of the faculty members, among them the principal, often attended their parties and enjoyed them, although they were often criticized for so doing.

After two years of observation, the following conclusions were reached: first, that high-school secret societies tend toward clannishness if not snobbishness; second, that the school elections were being more or less carried out on fraternity lines; third, that the high-school fraternity and sorority members do not always place the school first and the organization second; and fourth, that although the fraternity and sorority members had, as a whole, I.Q.'s above the average, their scholarship was below medium.

There were some advantages found in favor of the fraternities. First, they seemed to develop courtesy; second, the members took an active part in school affairs; third, the friendship and loyalty which the members felt for each other were without doubt, of value. Conditions were not so bad, but they pointed to two possible developments which undoubtedly would have been bad; first, the lowering of scholarship and, second, the breaking up of school spirit and the establishment of a group spirit in its place.

The high-school administration was accused by a few of being "pro-fraternity," because we had not cried with a loud voice, "You must get out." As a matter of fact, the administration was more anxious to remove these organizations from the school than anyone else, and last autumn a movement was started with this end in view. The leaders of the various groups as well as influential alumni were taken into the confidence of the principal. The pros and cons were discussed, with the result that the principal was invited to fraternity meetings to discuss disbandment with the members. The courtesy and the fine spirit shown in these meetings by the boys and girls were a tribute to their organizations. The whole matter was gone over and frankly discussed. It was pointed out that young people of their age, as well as the school, would be better off if secret societies did not exist. The appeal that they would show a spirit of real altruism by disbanding had great weight. They were willing to sacrifice some of their pleasures that the spirit of the school might be better and that those outside of their organization might not have the feeling that they were being slighted. The result was that

every secret organization disbanded and surrendered its charter without a single note of discord, while the spirit of these people and of the school administration was even finer than before.

Two years ago, two clubs were organized by the administration with the hope that they might in time aid in doing away with the secret organizations. These were the Rousers' Club and the Girls' Social Hour. The Rousers' Club is an organization composed of all of the boys of the school. It has two chief purposes: first, to build school spirit; second, to develop each boy socially and morally. Meetings are held every two weeks, sometimes at night when a dinner is served in the school cafeteria. Speakers are often brought in, and such subjects as the following are discussed: "Choosing a Vocation," "Essentials of a Gentleman," "How to Meet People," "The Value of Being Democratic," "What Girls Like Best about Boys," "How Girls Should Be Treated," "Care of the Body," "Value of a Good Appearance," and "What the School Expects of Me." In addition, talks by men representing the various vocations are given from which great good has resulted.

The Girls' Social Hour includes all of the girls of the school. Every other Friday school closes one-half hour early so that they may meet from 3:30 to 5:00 P.M. At these meetings, games are played and refreshments are served. There are always good speakers who talk to the girls on topics vital to them somewhat similar to those presented to the boys.

The reaction from both of these clubs has been very beneficial in that they create fine school spirit, get all groups together, and afford opportunity to teach some very essential things not taught in the classroom. These clubs have been a democratizing force in the school, and through them we have been able to present the bigger phases of school life to the students. Every member of the faculty has been very much interested in these organizations, with the result that the meetings are always excellent. The women of the faculty take charge of the girls' club, while the men guide the boys' organization. It is largely due to the spirit engendered by these clubs that we were able to get the students into a frame of mind that would make them willing to give up their secret societies.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Developing habits of work in high-school students.—A great deal has been said during the past five years in educational gatherings and in the educational press relative to such subjects as supervised study, creativeness in thinking, learning for mastery, project-teaching, co-operative learning, and measurements of education. The general theme of all of these discussions has been the need for a shift of the education unit from the class group to the individual student. The imperativeness of this need is strongly emphasized in a recent contribution¹ to the general subject of educating for mastery through creative thinking.

In his Preface Mr. Miller informs the reader that there are six main aspects of the discussion to which he wishes to call attention. In brief, these are (1) dealing with individuals with varying capacities, (2) shifting the emphasis from traditionally assigned lessons to directed and controlled classroom activity, (3) giving boys and girls things to do which will result in the knowledge desired, (4) changing from class groups to individual activity, (5) organizing classroom work so that the sense of mastery predominates, and (6) presenting various illustrative procedures. Back of all of these phases of the discussion is the fundamental principle that the teacher's main business is to stimulate curiosity, to foster interest in the search for knowledge, and to develop enthusiasm for the challenge of a problem.

After giving in the first fifty-eight pages a manual of suggestive procedures, the author considers in turn such general topics as the administration of directed study, the learning process, organizing principles and differentials, the development of a spirit of work, application of the social principle, initiation and authority, success and failure in school work, and the need for a shift of emphasis. Elaborate suggestive helps and problems for teachers in using the book are given in connection with each of the large topics which form the chapter headings. Definitions of terms used are also an important feature of the work. These are found at the end of the book.

The doctrine preached on nearly every page of this book is that pure and undefiled education is acquired through *thinking, thinking, thinking*. The lesson-learning school must give way to the directed-thinking school. For the mind thought of as a truth-testing apparatus must be substituted the mind

¹ HARRY LLOYD MILLER, *Directing Study*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922. Pp. viii+378.

conceived of as a truth-finding apparatus. In this new school which the author has in mind there will be nothing recited that is well known by any member of the class or that may become a bore to the members of the class. Neither will the teacher ask questions which she knows perfectly well the student addressed cannot answer. Positively stated, the new school of which so much is made throughout the discussion will aim to set up an environment in which every pupil has a real job during the entire class period.

Characterizing the work as a whole, one would say that it is stimulating, forward-looking, and permeated with a doctrine that ought to find realization in our present-day junior and senior high schools. The amount of concrete material illustrating the proposed reforms saves the discussion from the abstractness too often found in similar works.

R. M. TRYON

A text on journalistic writing.—Teachers who want to use "newspaper writing as a stimulus to student effort in composition" will find an unusually valuable guide in Mr. Hyde's latest book.¹ Definiteness of goal, clarity of exposition, and accurate knowledge of the field—for Mr. Hyde is a practical editor and writer for newspapers as well as a professor of journalism—all recommend the text.

Its aims are (1) to develop writing ability, (2) to create interest in current events, (3) to teach understanding of newspapers, (4) to develop habits of accuracy, and (5) to help teachers and students with technical problems, especially the advising and managing of student publications.

The aims are continually emphasized by explanation, exercise, and problem. The series of thirty-four lessons furnishes work for as many weeks, and each lesson is divided into five parts, as follows: (1) Monday, survey of some principle of writing, usually by means of discussion of a certain kind of newspaper article; (2) Tuesday, application of Monday's work through news-gathering and writing; (3) Wednesday, continuation of Tuesday's work; (4) Thursday, study of some phase of newspaper work, involving research into the newspaper itself; (5) Friday, study of current events.

Teachers who are launching student publications will find the section dealing with this subject definitely helpful, with a good plan of management supplemented by technical problems and a good working style sheet. The Appendix gives a bibliography of textbooks on newspaper writing and editing and a list of the best known books of reference available in the average library.

Although the author makes no pretense of teaching "literary writing" and does not intend to train newspaper workers in a professional sense, the student who faithfully learns and practices the principles of this text should find himself greatly aided in expressing his ideas in clear vigorous English.

GLADYS CAMPBELL

¹ GRANT MILNOR HYDE, *A Course in Journalistic Writing*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1922. Pp. xviii-424.

A course in high-school biology.—There have been published many pads or manuals of directions for laboratory and class work in science subjects. Some of these manuals make the work of a course quite definite and lead the pupil, step by step, through the subject-matter of the course. Properly organized and psychologically developed, such manuals are of the greatest value to the inexperienced teacher, although, if used merely as "so many things" to be done, they are worse than useless. Under a technique of instruction which requires the pupils to fill in the blank spaces as a series of unrelated bits, without giving an opportunity for development of expression and organization, such manuals do more harm than good.

The manual¹ by Mr. Meier has been carefully prepared. The author claims that enough work is included to meet the recommendations of the Committee on Reorganization of Secondary School Science as well as the college entrance requirements. One is led to conjecture if such a claim is a weakness or a strength of the manual. The material is extensive and rich in directions for various phases of study, such as field trips, laboratory work, and home projects. It gives no references to textbooks or supplementary books, the author stating that various books may be used and suggesting that references be given by the teacher or found by the pupil.

There are ninety-six perforated sheets, $9\frac{1}{2} \times 7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in size, each bearing directions for the study of some living process, principle, structure, environmental problem, family, or species of living organism. In general, the directions are fairly specific and should insure pupil progress. The inexperienced teacher will find the manual very useful in class work. The experienced teacher will find some suggestions for his own course.

C. J. PIEPER

Effective citizenship.—During the past few years the social-science field has been flooded with textbooks of varying degrees of merit and usability. This has been due in part to the increased demand for a new type of subject-matter to meet the redirected aims and purposes of the "new civics" movement. A second factor has been the impetus given to citizenship training by the war conditions which revealed an astounding lack of the knowledge of civic affairs demanded by effective citizenship.

When one reads the Preface of a recent book,² one feels certain that another author has caught the "new civics" point of view. On perusal of the content, one is disappointed to find, with few exceptions, the type of subject-matter which appeared in textbooks prior to the last decade. The book is divided into forty-three chapters, arranged according to the formal plan of an advanced political-science text. Each chapter contains from three to eight pages of

¹ W. H. D. MEIER, *The Study of Living Things*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1922. Pp. 96. \$0.80.

² FREDERICK F. BLACHLY and MIRIAM E. OATMAN, *Everyday Citizenship*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1922. Pp. viii + 252.

subject-matter, made up, for the most part, of a formal and commonplace tabulation of the powers and duties of governmental agencies and officials. Little use is made of the wide range of topics which enter into the experience of high-school pupils. Less than one-fifth of the book is devoted to a treatment of the economic and social phases of modern life. A three-page bibliography is made up largely of political-science books on the college level.

The type of subject-matter used in this book does not emphasize the functional, purposive phase of civic education. In fact, the political-science viewpoint seems to have determined the choice of content. The social and economic phases of citizenship, which are an essential part of any social-science text, have not received space compatible with their importance. In short, the book does not represent a contribution to the field; it is merely another text added to the rapidly increasing and motley collection of social-science textbooks.

W. G. KIMMEL

The correlation between college training and success in life.—Recent years have been characterized by a steadily increasing public and personal interest in the scientific measurements of results of educational effort and expenditure in terms of success in life. The liberal arts college, along with other educational agencies, has been subjected to rather careful scrutiny in this direction, and a number of attempts have been made to determine the relationship between success in college and success in life. Results have been more or less unsatisfactory because of the difficulties involved in selecting satisfactory criteria for determining such relationship. The most recent contribution¹ to the literature of the subject combines a critical summary of previous researches with the report of the author's survey of 1,153 college graduates (563 men and 590 women) representing eleven colleges, class of 1903.

In this investigation success in life is measured in terms of income twelve and one-half years after graduation, and collegiate achievement is correlated with success so measured. In addition to a detailed statistical treatment of the materials collected through this investigation, sections of the report deal with such supplementary items as "Influence of College Courses upon the Vocations of College Graduates" and "Problems of College Education Suggested by the Study."

The author finds a positive correlation between both scholarship and extra-curricular activities and later success in life. Although this correlation is in some instances so slight as to be almost negligible, the fact that it is positive warrants the conclusion that such activities do serve as selective agencies in revealing abilities which contribute to vocational success. The fact that the correlation between achievement in extra-curricular activities and success was found to be somewhat higher than the correlation between scholarship and

¹ BESSIE LEE GAMBRILL, *College Achievement and Vocational Efficiency*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 121. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922. Pp. viii+100.

success indicates the importance of something more than mere scholarship records for use by appointment bureaus in colleges. The fact that courses in the eleven colleges had little influence on the vocational choice of students is interpreted to signify remoteness of collegiate activity from practical community affairs. This situation leads to the general conclusion that there is cause for careful consideration of the objectives of college training.

The reader is impressed with the fact that the modern liberal arts college assumes almost no responsibility for either direct or indirect service in vocational choice during the training period. This practice would indicate that appointment bureaus attached to such colleges are receiving only nominal administrative support since they are forced to market a product which has been produced without regard to the practical situation to be met in occupational life. There is throughout the report a wealth of suggestive material which should lead to instructional readjustment and which indicates the need for more complete personnel service during the college period.

E. T. FILBEY

Latin texts partly in the original and partly in translation.—It is a generally recognized difficulty in teaching the early stages of Greek and Latin that the pupil, because of his limited knowledge of the language, is correspondingly limited in the range and amount of his reading of the ancient authors. Further, in his struggle with the language, he often misses the general sense of what he is reading. A number of teachers of the classics in England, in the effort to meet this difficulty, have begun the preparation of a series of texts partly in the original and partly in translation. In the first volume of the series (Books IV and V of Caesar's *Gallic War*) the plan is proposed "to translate about two pages of Caesar into English for every one that is left in Latin" and "as far as is consistent with preserving the due proportions of Latin and English, to retain in Latin the most interesting and typical passages."

The fifth volume¹ in this series presents in the prescribed form the first three books of Virgil's *Aeneid*. About one-third of the Latin text is retained, and the intervening passages are in the excellent verse translation of Mr. James Rhoades. An introduction of nineteen pages includes four sections under the following headings: "The Life and Times of Virgil," "The *Aeneid* and Aeneas," "*Aeneid* (Books I-III)," and "The Metre of the *Aeneid*." The book contains notes (pp. 95-130) which have been kept within somewhat narrow limits, an index of proper names (pp. 131-32), and a vocabulary (pp. 133-57).

Teachers in American schools who, by reason of shortness of time or the substitution of other material, are forced to neglect one or more of the first books of the *Aeneid* yet desire to preserve the continuity of the story will find this book admirably suited to the purpose.

H. B. ASH

¹ *Virgil's Aeneid, Books I-III.* Edited by C. E. FREEMAN. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1922. Pp. 158. \$1.20.

Handbook of effective writing.—The problem of acquainting college Freshmen and others with the principles of effective writing and cultivated English usage is yet with us. Professor Smart¹ has made an unusually successful attempt to reduce to order and clearness a subject which usually presents itself to students as a chaos of inexplicable "thou shalts" and "thou shalt nots." The material of the volume is organized under the following headings: "The Article as a Whole," "The Paragraph," "The Sentence, Its Thought Content," "Clearness in the Sentence," "Grammatical Correctness," "Diction," and "Mechanical Details."

The handbook is designed to serve as a text for class instruction as well as a manual for theme correction. As a textbook it has two valuable features: (1) the exercises in simplicity, directness, and accuracy of expression, placed at the end of several chapters, which are to be done without consideration of specific rules; (2) Appendix A, which presents the principles of punctuation from the standpoint of the logic of grammatical relationships rather than from the standpoint of specific rules.

As a manual of reference for theme correction, the book is admirable for its simplicity and clearness. By means of effective restatements of some of the usual rules and principles, the author has eliminated many confusing details of qualification with great gain of practical usefulness.

EDITH E. SHEPHERD

Physical education.—So very few good books on physical education have been published that it is a pleasure to find a new one² of real merit which gives real information to the student and teacher and to administrators of schools, playgrounds, and other institutions of education and amusement. The information is both theoretical and practical. One without knowledge of physical education can in a few minutes get from this book a general idea of the major problems in this field. One trained in physical education will find much new and useful material as well as a thorough and comprehensive compilation of prevalent theories and practices. The author expresses his aim thus: "To help set up standards, to help state facts that are scientific and demonstrated, to suggest tests and guides that can be used, and to report favorable progress in this field, is the purpose of this book" (p. viii).

The book is broad in its scope, covering a range of appropriate physical activities from those of children to those of adults and from simple games of children to strenuous competitive sports of men. Heretofore when one constructed a swimming pool and needed information on the methods of construction, one was compelled to consult architects or engineers. The author has brought together in this text much information of this character which is

¹ WALTER KAY SMART, *Handbook of Effective Writing*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1922. Pp. xviii+268.

² JESSE FEIRING WILLIAMS, *The Organization and Administration of Physical Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922. Pp. xiv+326.

practical, scientific, and immediately useful both to directors of physical education and to administrative officers. Mr. Williams has made a distinctly valuable contribution, but he has neglected to emphasize the moral values of physical education which, in the opinion of the reviewer, should have constituted the concluding chapter of this otherwise thoroughly admirable book.

W. J. MONILAW

Educational measurements.—At the present time most of the texts dealing with educational measurements fall into two classes: those which consist largely of descriptions of the various tests with directions for giving and scoring them and those which deal primarily with the theory of measurement and which presuppose training in this field. To this body of material there has been recently added a book¹ which is intended to bridge, in part, the gap between theory and practice.

The point of view which the author takes is well expressed in the opening paragraph of the Preface.

This book deals with the processes and problems in a somewhat evolutionary way so that the teachers and students may see the order in which the problems have arisen and the attempted solution of them. A mere manual of directions for giving tests and scoring the papers will not develop a professional spirit among teachers in this field. They must understand the fundamental principles, or the work becomes purely mechanical and non-professional. It has been the aim of the author to present the fundamental principles in non-technical language, as far as it is possible to do so, and to confine the statistical treatment of the data almost entirely to simple operations in arithmetic [p. v].

After an initial chapter on the possibility of developing more efficient American citizens by eliminating waste in education through more scientific measurement, the author discusses the need of some method of measurement to set up standards of efficiency and properly to evaluate the progress made. Other chapters in the book deal with the measurement of intelligence, the fundamental principles for designing school achievement tests, scoring the tests, and the treatment of the results. Several chapters are devoted to the simpler statistical methods.

The book is well adapted to the use for which it is intended and is a distinct contribution to the literature of its class. It may be used very profitably as a text in educational measurement courses and may be read to advantage by teachers in all fields.

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

A new history of the United States.—The appearance in a new form of a history textbook which has earned wide recognition in elementary schools during its existence of twenty-five years is an event of interest to all who are

¹ CHESTER ARTHUR GREGORY, *Fundamentals of Educational Measurement*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1922. Pp. xviii+382.

concerned in the teaching of American history in the upper grades. The present volume,¹ unlike many "new" editions which are published from time to time, is virtually a recasting and a rewriting of the original work and is not the old text with a few alterations in titles or phraseology or with the mere addition of supplementary chapters to bring the book down to date.

Significant as an illustration of present-day tendencies in history teaching is the fact that almost one-half of the new volume is devoted to the period since 1860, while more than one-fifth of it is given to the events of the twentieth century. The attempt to organize the history of the last fifty years in what the author calls "logical groups or unities" is another indication of a late trend in the teaching of the subject. Many teachers will regret that the author does not carry this effort to its logical conclusion and organize the entire field in teachable blocks or movements; for example, chapter xvi, on industrial development following the Civil War, and much of chapter xviii, on recent governmental efforts to regulate and control big business, might advantageously be combined in a unified discussion.

The style of the book, while a bit lacking in vividness and graphic qualities, is clear and, on the whole, readable. The illustrations and maps are ample. The former, with the exception of certain imaginative pictures, possess genuine educative value. Type, paper, binding, and format are pleasing. The problems for pupils, the lists of readings, and the appendixes are, for the most part, serviceable. All in all, the volume stands as one of the leading texts in its field.

HOWARD C. HILL

Measuring teaching ability.—The attempt to discover a dependable index to teaching ability has commanded the praiseworthy effort of Mr. Knight in his recent contribution² to education. The mutual ratings of 153 teachers were secured by Mr. Knight and correlated against certain objective facts, such as age, length of service, intelligence as measured by test, etc. The results indicate that the most reliable factor to use for prognostic purposes is the ability to pass a professional test.

By using the coefficient of partial correlation we find, in the case of elementary-school teachers, that, the factors of intelligence and normal-school scholarship being constant, there is a mutual relationship of +.57 between ability to teach and ability to pass a professional test. Professional tests may be used to estimate probable success in teaching. . . .

In the case of high-school teachers, intellectual differences, as determined by mental tests, appear to be significant. For the selection of high-school teachers the use of mental tests would be of value.

¹ WILBUR F. GORDY, *History of the United States*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922. Pp. xiv+600. \$1.60.

² FREDERIC BUTTERFIELD KNIGHT, *Qualities Related to Success in Teaching*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 120. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922. Pp. x+68.

These data, as a whole, may be interpreted to mean that the general factor of interest in one's work becomes the dominant factor in determining one's success in teaching [pp. viii-ix.]

The study also includes correlations of ratings of supervisors with those of teachers and of ratings of pupils with those of teachers, the ratings showing a greater degree of uniformity than might be expected. Chapter v, the concluding chapter, deals with the theory of analysis. It gives an account of the unsuccessful attempt to analyze general teaching ability into specific traits, such as instructional skill, scholarship, etc. The conclusion is reached that it is impossible accurately to obtain such an analysis by means of collective judgments on account of the dominant influence of the general estimate on the judgment of the specific trait.

The greatest weakness of the study is the rather labored manipulation of statistics in such sections as "The Mutual Relation Between General Teaching Ability and Normal-School Success," in which actual data were not sufficient to justify conclusions without the piling up of questionable assumptions. The greatest value of the study lies in the fact that it is a scientific attack on the problem of the objective measurement of teaching ability. The field is one in which further compilations of data are needed to supplement Mr. Knight's interesting contribution.

ROY IVAN JOHNSON

Methods of teaching home economics.—A special methods textbook¹ by Agnes K. Hanna goes far toward filling the need stated in the Preface: "Teachers of special methods courses in home economics have been handicapped because little material on the principles and methods of teaching home economics has been available for use as text or reference books for these classes" (p. iii).

No one is better qualified to write on special methods in home economics than Miss Hanna, who has had intimate acquaintance with all phases of the work. Those who knew that this book was in process of construction were anticipating a real help in its publication; a careful reading of the book gives no reason for disappointment. The discussion of subject-matter and of methods shows a keen appreciation and a thorough analysis of the problems of home economics teaching, and there are helpful suggestions for their solution along correct psychological and pedagogical lines. Emphasis has been placed on problem-solving methods and on the social and economic phases of home economics, although a discussion of the acquisition of skill has not been omitted. The aim throughout is to give suggestions for planning courses so that they will really function.

Some helpful features of the book are the suggested problems and the rather full bibliography at the end of each chapter and the outlined course of study

¹ AGNES K. HANNA, *Home Economics in the Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Boston: Whitcomb & Barrows, 1922. Pp. vi+328. \$2.50.

given in the Appendix. This course is of special interest because it is based on the economic and social aspects of home problems. Six general topics are considered: (1) "Selection of Food," (2) "Selection of Clothing," (3) "Selection of the House and Furnishings," (4) "Household Expenditures," (5) "The Household and the Community," (6) "The Family." The work is planned as one unit in a general home economics course of thirty-six weeks, seven periods per week, for the ninth or tenth grade.

Home Economics in the Elementary and Secondary Schools is the best book on home economics teaching that has yet been published. It is readable; it is interesting; its principles are sound; and it presents a well-thought-out and well-organized body of material.

LILLIAN STEVENSON

A contribution to the history of mathematics.—Teachers and students of secondary-school mathematics will be interested in an investigation¹ which aims to trace the history of the origin and growth of the different algebraic methods of approximating roots of algebraic equations of one unknown. Four approximation methods of solving formal equations and finding the roots of numbers have been traced from the beginning: (1) the method of single false position, used by the Hindus, the Egyptians, and the Greeks; (2) the method of averages, which seems to have been used by Archimedes, and a definite exposition of which is given by Heron; (3) methods of double false position, used by Archimedes, Heron, the Arabs, and Leonardo of Pisa for finding the roots of numbers; and (4) methods of exhaustion, the most widely used of all methods. The earliest method recorded is that by Theon of Alexandria, which led gradually to a process for evolving the roots digit by digit, finally leading to our present process. Vieta, Newton, Lagrange, and Horner all developed valuable methods of exhaustion.

The book can be read by students who have studied junior college mathematics, including college algebra, and will appeal to those who have special interest in the history of mathematics.

E. R. BRESLICH

Auto mechanics.—The popularity of automotive courses in our schools has created a demand for suitable instructional material which has been supplied in the past to a large extent by literature intended for the technician. A general text for the student has been needed. Mr. Ray Kuns has written such a book,² designed to meet the needs of instructors and students in automotive work. Every phase of the automobile is covered. "No attempt has been made to

¹ MARTIN ANDREW NORDGAARD, *A Historical Survey of Algebraic Methods of Approximating the Roots of Numerical Higher Equations up to the Year 1819*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 123. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922. Pp. vi+64.

² RAY F. KUNS, *Automotive Trade Training*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1922. Pp. 620.

show methods of repair and overhaul on every make of automobile, but every type of equipment has been treated" (p. 1). This book presents the type of material so greatly needed by schools, classes, or individuals interested in obtaining technically correct and easy-to-read facts about automobiles.

ROBERT WOELLNER

Practical horticulture.—There is at the present time, more than ever before, a need for information and general knowledge pertaining to practical agriculture in all of its phases because there is a desire to foster the back-to-the-farm spirit and because every person should have a broader conception and a keener appreciation of the pursuit of agriculture as an important factor in our economic life.

A book¹ which will meet this need and which will find a ready place as an interesting textbook in the schools and as a usable reference for homes, libraries, and reading courses has recently been published.

The book impresses one with its logical arrangement, scientific accuracy, and carefulness of detail. Its language is non-technical. Some of the significant features are: many well-selected illustrations, numerous interesting projects, and a variety and an abundance of good exercises. The short chapters on "Market Preparation," "Transportation," "Storage," "Marketing," and "Incidental Products" make the book more practical. The closing chapter, "The Use of Ornamental Plants," is especially pleasing and adds very much to the charm and value of the book.

O. D. FRANK

Social-science problems for the senior high school.—About six years ago a committee of the National Education Association proposed a course in social studies for the senior high school which seems to be gaining in favor. "Problems of American Democracy" was the name the committee suggested for the proposed course. Many high-school people and textbook writers have accepted this name. Evidence of this is found in the fact that three texts appeared in 1922 which appropriated the name or one very much like it, and many high schools listed a course bearing the title "Problems of American Democracy." One exception to this general acceptance of the N.E.A. committee's name for the course was a text published last year under the title *Social Civics*.

The general agreement on a name for the new course has been paralleled by a similar agreement on content, a good example of this content being found in the book by R. O. Hughes.² After some introductory material on what the

¹ A. V. STUBENRAUCH, MILO N. WOOD, and CHARLES J. BOOTH, *Horticulture for Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922. Pp. xxiv+326.

² R. O. HUGHES, *Problems of American Democracy*. Chicago: Allyn & Bacon, 1922. Pp. xx+646.

author calls "Foundations," such topics as "Making America Intelligent," "Elevating American Standards," "Making America Prosperous," "Making Our Democratic Government Efficient," and "Our Relations with Other Countries" are considered in detail. The general plan followed in treating any specific problem is, first, to state conditions as they are; second, to discover the reasons for the conditions stated; and, third, to decide what ought to be done about the conditions found. While this threefold treatment does not stand out very conspicuously in the treatment of the majority of the problems, it does furnish the teacher a splendid mode of procedure in dealing with many of the larger topics.

The book is well supplied with teaching aids in the form of graphs, charts, pictures, maps, questions, lists of topics for special study, and reference readings. These should be of great value to the teacher whose academic training in the field is meager. While the final test of any text is its success in actual use, one feels, after a careful reading of this book, that it will not fail to meet all reasonable tests to which it may be put. If it does not achieve the same astounding success as the author's *Community Civics*, there is certainly in store for it a career which its high qualities merit.

R. M. TRYON

The question of the classics again.—It seems not quite appropriate that Mr. Cooper¹ should call his book *Two Views of Education*, since the entire discussion arises out of the author's complete commitment to *one* view of education—a view that is best described by the words "classical discipline." It is the continual emphasis and re-emphasis of this view that lends a certain degree of unity and organization to what would otherwise be a miscellany of papers on Greek culture, the teaching of English, literature for engineers, the improvement of scholarship, the doctoral degree in English, etc.

The nature of the subject-matter may well be indicated by a series of questions and answers. What is the real mark of scholarship? Proficiency in Greek and Latin. Of what shall the required readings in English consist? Largely of the classics. Who are the final arbiters of good usage in English? Scholars who know Greek and Latin. What should a professional man (say, an engineer) read? The classics. How shall we discover the source of all really profound ideas? Read Plato. What is the duty of a man who is really capable of scholarship? Pay the "homage that is due to Athens . . . and to Beatrice." What is the road to regenerate scholarship in our universities? Greek and Latin.

Naturally, the attitude of the reader toward the classical controversy will determine, to a great extent, his reaction toward Mr. Cooper's book. The present reviewer is disposed to see in the book a zealous rebuilding of the walls about the hypothesis of classical culture with the same ineffective stones of

¹LANE COOPER, *Two Views of Education*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1922. Pp. x+322. \$2.50.

specialized and isolated illustrations and arguments which are really not germane to the main problems of general training. However, there is no mistaking the author's earnestness and enthusiasm in presenting his viewpoint, an enthusiasm which wins a certain amount of personal sympathy though not intellectual concession.

Mr. Cooper believes that a return to the discipline of the classics has begun, and he points to what he calls "signs of a better time." He says: "At least one of our colleges, Amherst, has definitely announced its intention of returning to ancient ways, in the direction of rigor and of Greek and Latin—a motion, let us say, toward the glory of God and perpetual felicity" (p. 279).

ROY IVAN JOHNSON

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

MONROE, WALTER SCOTT. *An Introduction to the Theory of Educational Measurements*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1923. Pp. xxiv+364.
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PARKER, SAMUEL CHESTER. *Types of Elementary Teaching and Learning*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1923. Pp. xvi+586. \$2.00.

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